

A
COLLECTION
OF
MODERN AND CONTEMPORARY
VOYAGES
AND
TRAVELS:

CONTAINING,

I.

TRANSLATIONS FROM FOREIGN LANGUAGES, OF VOYAGES
AND TRAVELS NEVER BEFORE TRANSLATED.

II.

ORIGINAL VOYAGES AND TRAVELS NEVER BEFORE
PUBLISHED.

III.

ANALYSES OF NEW VOYAGES AND TRAVELS
PUBLISHED IN ENGLAND.

VOL. V.

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By J. G. Barnard, 57, Snow Hill.

1807.

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THERE is no sea with which our age is so imperfectly acquainted as the Frozen Ocean; and no empire which has more powerful motives and resources for extending its information, in this quarter, than Russia. Although the government has made several efforts, at different periods, to attain this object, yet none of their expeditions, except the first two, undertaken by Captain Behring, for the purpose of discovery, have brought them nearer the desired point; owing to the inexperience of those who planned and executed them, and who were neither of them aware of the endless difficulties to be combated in a boisterous element, and a corner of the globe so imperfectly known.

One grand impediment to their success was the size of their vessels, which were very well adapted for crossing the main on voyages of discovery, but could ill serve the purpose of passing through shallows, and making minute observations on the shores. By the removal of this evil I flatter myself that not a single bay, island, or mountain, has

escaped our notice, on the coasts of which we have taken a survey, and that we have, in addition to this, been enabled to rectify the mistakes of former navigators.

During the eight years of our absence I had made it my daily practice to note down in my journal every thing that appeared to me worthy of observation, without any intention, however remote, of committing my remarks to the press; but the urgent persuasions of my friends, combined with the gracious commands of his Imperial Majesty, have at length over-ruled my disinclination to give them publicity. I now submit this my humble effort at contributing to the general good, with the fullest reliance on the indulgence of a candid public.

TO OUR READERS.

THE great success which has attended the publication of this Work, and the certainty that it will in a few years be deemed of the first consequence in English Literature, lead the Editors to adopt a new arrangement in regard to the manner of its publication, in conformity to the expressed wish of many of its patrons.

Hitherto, for the sake of variety, and to gratify the greatest number of readers, several works of Voyages and Travels have been kept in course of continuation in the several Numbers: it has, however, been suggested, that the interest of the Works has been diminished to the periodical reader, by the numerous divisions consequent on that mode of publication, and that the utility of the Work would be increased, if every successive Book of Travels were finished before a new one was begun.

Having no object but the gratification of our readers, we have cheerfully attended to the above suggestion, and have determined, in future, to insert but one work under each general division, in any one Number; that is to say, we will never give place to more than one Translation, one Original, and one Analysis, in each Number, and endeavour, as often as possible, to finish every work in one or two Numbers.

Of course, six Numbers, as heretofore, will continue to form a Volume, and no difference will be perceived by persons who prefer to purchase the half-yearly Volumes, instead of the monthly Numbers: the more rapid completion, however, of each Work in the successive Numbers, cannot but be felt by all our monthly readers as a decisive improvement of our plan.

BRIDGE STREET,
March 31st, 1807.

ACCOUNT
OF A
VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY
TO THE NORTH-EAST OF
SIBERIA,
THE FROZEN OCEAN,
AND THE
NORTH-EAST SEA.

BY
GAWRILA SARYTSCHIEW,
RUSSIAN IMPERIAL MAJOR-GENERAL TO THE EXPEDITION.

TRANSLATED FROM THE RUSSIAN,
AND EMBELLISHED WITH ENGRAVINGS.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR RICHARD PHILLIPS, 6, BRIDGE STREET,
BLACKFRIARS,
By J. G. Barnard, 57, Snow-hill.

1806.

A VOYAGE OF DISCOVERY

TO

SIBERIA, &c.



CHAP. I.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR THE EXPEDITION.—MY DEPARTURE.
—JOURNEY TO IRKUTSK AND JAKUTSK.—REMARKS ON
THE LATTER PLACE.—OF THE JAKUTS' UNINHABITED
PLACES, AND HORSES.—INCANTATIONS OF A JAKUTISH
SHAMAN.

ON the 8th of August, 1785, our late revered sovereign, Catherine the Great, whose maternal care extended to the remotest corners of her realm, was pleased to communicate, in an ukase, the plan and consumation of our voyage to the board of admiralty. In this she gave her directions for a geographical and astronomical expedition to proceed to the north eastern part of Russia, for the purpose of taking the latitude and longitude of the mouth of the river Kolyma, together with a map of its banks, comprehending the whole chain of Tschukotish mountains, the eastern cape, and the numerous islands scattered in the eastern ocean, as far as the shores of America; and, finally, of obtaining a more accurate acquaintance with the seas separating the continent of Irkutsk from the coast of America.

Commodore Joseph Billings was appointed chief of the expedition: the other officers were, Robert Hall, Gawrila Sarytschew, and Christian Behning, lieutenants; Anthony Batakow and Sergei Bramkow, steersmen; Michael Rohbeck, first surgeon; Mark Sauter, secretary; Joseph Edwards, mechanic; Luka Woronin, drawing-master; and Wasili Siwgow, chaplain. Doctor Karl Mark succeeded assessor Patrin in the department of natural history, whose ill health obliged him to resign his situation at Irkutsk.

Agreeably to the arrangements of the empress, Commodore Billings was to be twice promoted during the voyage, and the inferior officers once. The whole crew, according to their respective rank, were to receive double pay during the voyage;

with the additional recompence of a year's double pay on their departure and return. Besides which, the superior officers were to have a pension for life; and those who might be disabled in the service, were to retire on half-pay. The wives and children also of such as died during the expedition, were to receive the half pay of their husbands or fathers; the wives until their second marriage, or death; and the children until they came of age.

The various preparations for the expedition lasted six months; all the necessary astronomical instruments being ordered from England: while much time was occupied in collecting the toys and trifling presents for the savage inhabitants, as well as medals of gold, silver, and copper, which were struck for the same purpose.

About the middle of September, I was dispatched with some workmen from Petersburg to Ochotsk, to forward the requisite preparations at the different places. The badness of the roads greatly retarded my progress as far as Tobolsk, but this impediment ceased with the setting in of the cold weather. On the 23d of October, I exchanged my wheeled vehicles for sledges, with which I passed over the river Irtysh. The ice in the Ob not being set on the 28th, we crossed it in the boats, but not without very great danger. During the rest of my journey I found all the other rivers passable by the sledges, except the Angara, in the neighbourhood of Irkutsk, which, from the violence of the stream, remains open till December, and I reached this place on the 10th of November*.

My business here was to examine the state of the transport vessels and building materials, that whatever was wanting might be provided by order of the governor-general; and, in case of a deficiency in timber, hides were to be procured for making the baidars. These are large boats of a peculiar construction, made either of wood or hides.

In the latter case, the sides of the boat are covered with the skins of sea-animals instead of planks. They carry from eight to sixteen oars, but have no rudder.

After having made the necessary enquiries, and obtained an open order from the governor-general, to all the provincial magistrates, authorising them to afford me every possible assistance, I left Irkutsk in December, and arrived in Jakutsk on the 10th of January, after a journey still more tedious than the former. The road was very good as far as the river Lena; but our passage over the rough ice of this stream to the town of Alukmar,

* Irkutsk is 6016 wersts, or 859 German miles, or 4295 English miles from Petersburg; accordingly the author went at the rate of 16 German, or 80 English miles a day.

was extremely troublesome. Between Alukmar and Jakutsk, I experienced no inconvenience from the roads, but much from the horses; which being used in those parts only for riding, drew our sledges on very slowly.

Jakutsk, situated on the left bank of the Lena, is the oldest of all the cities in that quarter. The ostrog*, or wooden fortress, was erected in the year 1647, and soon afterwards the building of the town commenced. This old edifice, with its towers, is still standing, but in some places is fallen very much to decay. Within the enclosure there is a public building of stone, and a church: there are, besides, two stone churches; one by the convent, the other in the town, and two of wood. All the dwelling-houses are built of wood, in the old Russian taste, with here and there Jakutish huts interspersed between them. The want of glass for the windows is supplied either by isinglass or by bladders in the summer, and plates of ice in the winter, frozen into frames by snow. These are continually sprinkled with water, which is quickly congealed by the extreme cold of the climate, to such a degree as to resist the strongest heat of a room. The light penetrates through these ice-windows in a similar manner as it does through glass covered with white frost.

The inhabitants of the town consist of civil officers, *Bogaren Kinder*†, Kosaks, Jakutish merchants, and citizens. The latter are principally exiles, some of whom, even among the felons, have amended their lives, and attached themselves again to civil society. In fact, this remark will generally hold good, that criminals of the lowest order, sent to Siberia for extraordinary crimes, the sight of which impresses us with horror, not only have their liberty, but use it with the greatest moderation. Many of them gain the confidence of the inhabitants, and are admitted into their houses in different capacities. They are, of course, particularly on their guard to prevent even the suspicion of doing amiss, from the apprehension of being delivered over to perpetual labour in the mines of Nertschink‡.

* The word ostrog is here translated fortress, for which the Russians have likewise the word krepost; this, however, is never used in the present work. Ostrog is the peculiar appellation for Siberian fortresses, the greater part of which are aptly enough described by the deceased Georgi, when he says, "It would be dangerous to attempt storming them, for whoever wanted to mount their greatest and only bulwark, the wooden paling, would most probably come to the ground with the whole structure about him." 1 R.

† A class of inferior nobility, existing only in Siberia, and composed of meritorious Kosaks, who have been in the service of the emperor. They owe their establishment to Peter the Great.

‡ Considerable alterations have probably taken place in this respect since that period; for even in Catherine's reign, repeated ukases were issued, to

It is beyond all doubt, that many of these poor creatures are possessed of good hearts, and have been hurried, by some incidental or urgent circumstances, into the commission of atrocious crimes.

Heedless of the remonstrances made me against travelling that road farther in the winter season, I set off from Jakutsk on horseback, attended with a retinue of Jakuts for my guide, and pack-horses to carry my baggage and provisions; having laid in a stock for two months, and furnished myself, according to the custom of the country, with a coat of reindeer skins as a protection against the severity of the climate.

The commander had provided me with a Kosak, who could speak Jakutish and Tungushish, and who served as my interpreter both with the guides and in the different districts through which I passed; and I found him every where indispensable, the Russian being neither spoken nor understood in those parts. All my countrymen, without exception, settling here, make themselves acquainted with their language for purposes of trade; a motive which cannot influence them to learn our's.

From Jakutsk to the river Aldan, 550 wersts distant, the road led me through Jakutish ulusses, or dwelling-places, over plains scattered with woods, lakes, corn-fields, and meadows. The woods, every where, consisted of larch and beech-trees. An uluss comprehends a certain number of dwellings, under the government of a Knäsk*, or elder. We generally passed our nights in the jurts of these Knäsks, and were always received with great kindness. Hospitality is, in fact, the first virtue among the Jakuts in general. No sooner does a traveller arrive at a place, than they hasten towards him, helping him off his horse, and conducting him into their yurt, enlarging their fire,

enforce the execution of the laws against banished criminals; and, under Paul, there were very few exceptions, in which the indulgence of staying behind was granted to the condemned. "The horrid crimes," says the author, "are but too often the result of a momentary delusion, or vehement passion, particularly among uncultivated people." In corroboration of this sentiment, we shall give the following anecdote, as described by a person who saw the female alluded to;—a woman who had murdered her husband. He was a lad of 14 or 15, imposed upon her by her fensual lord, when she was at the age of 23, and was constantly provoking her by blows and ill treatment, until impelled by a spirit of revenge, she seized the opportunity of his leaning over a pail of water, to force his head in, and thus suffocate him. The person who related the anecdote to the translator met with her in a family in Siberia, where she had nursed the children from their infancy, and was beloved by them as a mother, notwithstanding the mark on her forehead. She was then advanced in years, but had not gained peace of mind by length of time. The remorse of a wounded conscience still clouded her countenance, and frequently filled her eyes with tears.

† Knäsk—the diminutive of this word signifies, in Russian, a prince.

taking off his clothes, and cleaning them from the snow, &c. The bed is made ready for him in the most retired place, the table covered with the best their house can afford, and his comfort consulted in every particular to the utmost of their power; while to all this civility they sometimes add the present of a fox's or sable's skin. I always strove to repay their kindness by such trifles as I knew to be most acceptable. Tobacco is a great luxury with them; but they are so extravagantly fond of brandy, that when one glass is given them they make no scruple of asking for a second, and even a third. The Jakuts are probably descended from an ancient race of Tartars not yet converted to Mahometanism. This appears evident from a similarity of their features, their mode of life, and still more their language, which approaches so nearly to the Tartar dialect, that one of my attendants, who was a Tartar, understood most of what they said without any difficulty.

The number of Jakuts who have embraced the Christian faith is not inconsiderable, yet the majority are of the poorer class, who have submitted to be baptised perhaps in order to be freed for some years from the poll-tax. The rich are not disposed to renounce a plurality of wives, nor the use of meat, butter, milk, and above all, horse-flesh, during the fasts, as enjoined by the Catholic faith. The latter is the greatest delicacy they can possibly conceive; and they often tell the Russians, that if they were once to make a proper meal from the flesh of a horse, they would in future prefer it to the tenderest beef. They eat the fat of horses and cows mostly raw, without any addition, and drink melted butter with the greatest avidity; which latter they regard as an excellent remedy for many disorders, and rub their sick with it when necessary. By way of pacifying a cross child, they put a piece of raw fat into its hand to suck. In summer, when the mares foal, they make their *kumys* from the milk, after the manner of the Tartars. Their beverage, in winter, consists of sour milk, unchurned butter, and water, which I found indeed not unpalatable. Hence it will appear, that almost all their food is composed of things forbidden by our (the Greek) church; but our priests keep the converted Jakuts very strict to their duty, and will not allow them to touch a single article that is prohibited; but as they have neither corn, fruit, nor fish, it is almost impossible for them to abstain so rigidly. The cause, therefore, why so many Jakuts remain heathens, may be attributed to the indulgence of their appetites.

The Jakutish jurts are built from the ground, describing a square of more or less magnitude, according to the size of the family. They first drive three rows of poles fast into the earth,

the middle one of which is rather higher than the two on each side. On these poles they lay five beams crossways and sloping, which are covered with rough planks, and afterwards with herbs, mould, and dung. The middle of the interior is generally occupied by a hearth, from whence the smoke is carried out by a sort of chimney, composed of long thick sticks, plaistered in the inside with pitch. The wood is placed in an upright direction on the hearth, and the fire is never extinguished during the winter. Broad benches are fixed round the walls of the jurts or huts, which are divided off by partitions into sleeping places. Their horned cattle are kept in a separate building connected with the yurt by an opening, through which they pass, from whence the whole dwelling is filled with an offensive smell. The summer jurts are altogether different from the winter ones, and have another name, being called *urasses*; they are round and conical, made of long poles, and covered on the outside with the bark of trees.

The rich Jakuts wear the skins of reindeer, and the poor those of horses. Their dress is the same in summer and winter, except, that in the latter case they use the fur with the skin, and in the former the skin alone. Instead of a shirt they cover the breast with a cloth, and over that wear a fur waistcoat and a long coat of the same. Their breeches do not reach the knee, which has a distinct covering, fastened with thongs, and continued from the calf by a leather buskin, over which they wear a sort of boots, called, in their language, *eterbesen*. Those in better circumstances decorate their hips with cloths of red or blue, trimmed quite round, and fastened to the girdle.

Whenever a Jakut sets out on a journey, he binds his large knife, fixed in a long stick, to his girdle, and takes his steel, flint, and tinder with him; the latter of which is prepared from wormwood. In the hind part of his boot he fixes his wooden pipe, having a short tube, split down the middle, for the convenience of being cleaned, and fastened with thongs. He mixes more than half saw-dust with his tobacco, the fumes of which he mostly swallows until he is thrown into a state of stupefaction. He defends this practice on the ground of its efficacy against abdominal complaints.

The ordinary dress of the Jakutish female differs but little from that of the male; but their best garments are longer and larger than usual, being bordered with many pieces of coloured cloth and Chinese stuffs, worked with bits of silver and copper of different figures, and edged with a broad trimming of beaver and otter's skin. For this dress they have a particular cap, embellished with three tufts of feathers. They adorn their ears with large silver rings, and form their hair into a long queue.

On the 5th of February, I stopped at the last Jakutish dwelling-place; it was the jurt of an invalid Kosak, who filled the office of clerk to the knäsk of that district, and at the same time provided the couriers and post-horses. The road further on leads through an uninhabited country of 400 versts. Although the horses appointed for us were very good, yet the Jakuts begged me to wait some days, that they might rest from the labours of the field before they entered on so long and arduous a journey. I yielded to their request, and they kept the creatures tied up for four days, allowing them but a very small portion of hay only once in twenty-four hours. On the 11th, we pursued our route through woody and marshy plains, where no sort of track was visible, nor any guide for the traveller but what the Jakuts had made for themselves. We passed over an immense tract of country, that presented nothing worthy of observation, until we came betwixt chains of lofty mountains, and followed the course of a river for many miles, either travelling along its woody banks, or crossing its ice and its islands. This single variation was succeeded by an endless plain, covered with snow so excessively deep, that our horses could not drag themselves onward without the utmost difficulty. The Jakuts call this tract **THE SMOOTH**, and are very anxious to hasten through it as quickly as possible, for fear of being surprized by bad weather; in which case the whole caravan might be buried in the snow: frequent instances of which were related to me by the guides. We were, however, fortunate enough to pass the perilous spot in safety, and arrived at the south of the river Amog-unog-gaga; which, after journeying 35 versts farther, brought us to the river Kunkui, whose banks are covered with warm springs. Here we found a single Jakutish jurt, the dwelling of a poor peasant, who had no cattle, and lived only on the fish and partridges that are very plentiful in those parts.

My guides telling me the next morning we had only to travel ten dinschtschen*, or about 70 versts to the next place on the Omekon. It was now my turn to be anxious to hasten onwards, that I might reach the spot that day, and sleep once more in a warm jurt, after having spent eleven uneasy nights in the open woods and the bitter cold. I must acknowledge that this mode of travelling had become almost insupportable to me. Having been the whole day on horseback, and the whole night in the

* A dinschtscha comprehends as much country as the wandering hordes can traverse with all their effects in a day. A great dinschtscha contains about ten, and a small one about seven versts. The word appears to be of Russian extraction: denn, in Russian, signifies a day, and has in the plural din. We find also in the Russian dictionary of the Academy, poldnischtscha, to imply half a day.—Tr.

snow, without ever changing my linen, or taking off my clothes during the whole time. Thirty versts beyond our last night's abode, we passed the river Conta; and after crossing verdant meadows, reached the first jurts late in the evening.

My resolution was to have taken a little repose here, but learning that the knâsk of the district lived 40 versts farther, I remounted next morning, and set off with fresh vigour. On our way we had occasion to cross a great chain of mountains, named Atbas, to which the Jakuts pay homage, as in fact they do to all distinguished mountains, by depositing offerings of horse-hair on the trees. My guides did not omit this ceremony, each Jakut tearing out some hairs from his horse's tail, or mane, and hanging them on the nearest branches of the trees.

Our horses were so jaded from hard labour and want of food that they carried us with difficulty the last stage to Omekon. During the whole of the journey they were allowed but two hours in the morning before day-break for grazing, being tied up the rest of the night as soon as we alighted; and the grass which they kicked up with their hoofs was so withered and rotten as to have lost all its nutritive quality; but in some places, even this miserable fodder was not to be found, so that I am persuaded the poor beasts did not get in the twelve days as much food as they ought to have had in twenty-four hours. I learnt, however, from experience, that, without such a precaution, they would not have gone half the way; for some of the horses, through the negligence of the guides, having rolled themselves in the snow while the sweat was upon them, were covered the next morning with such large ulcers upon their backs, that they could not bear either a saddle or any other burden: the Jakuts left them unguarded in the wood, intending to take them on their return in case they had recovered, but if not, they were still obliged to carry their owners.

On reaching Omekon, I put up at the yurt of an invalid Kosak, clerk to the knâsk of that place. I was here informed that the deep snow would prevent me pursuing the journey to Ochotsk on horseback. Some Kosaks had just been making an attempt to go this road with the post, and after losing all their horses, were trying to get back on snow-shoes, when they fortunately met with the Reindeer-Tunguses, who thus saved their lives, and conveyed them to Ochotsk. Reindeer, which are in general use among the tribes in these parts for passing from one place to another, are very well calculated for the purpose, being detained neither by the deepest snows in the winter, nor the widest marshes in the summer. I therefore gladly consented to ~~wait~~ until the return of the messenger, dispatched to the Tun-

guses in the mountainous countries, who wander about with their jurts and their reindeer.

In the mean time, I had an opportunity of witnessing the incantations of a Jakutish shaman. He was invited by a sick person to appease the evil spirit supposed to have sent the disorder. The shaman exchanged his usual Jakutish dress for the habit of his office, made of reindeer leather (called Rudwoga), which reached not much above the knees, and was covered over with narrow thongs, and thin bits of iron of different shapes and sizes. Having made his arrangements, he untied his hair that was fastened together upon his head*, smoked a pipe of tobacco, took his tambourine, seated himself in the midst of the yurt, and beating it first at long intervals with his bolujach, or a flat stick covered with reindeer-skin, sung a shaman's song; in which, as my interpreter told me, he challenged all the seven spirits under his command. A few minutes afterwards he began to beat his tambourine again, and bawl with great vehemence, standing up and addressing himself in different positions; and then to jump and hop about the sick person to the sound of his instrument, at the same time screaming with a horrible voice, and distorting himself in a hideous manner. His head, with the dishevelled hair, rolled backward and forward with such rapidity that it seemed to be moved by springs; his eyes glared like those of a maniac; and falling soon after, from the violent exertion, into a sort of swoon, two Jakuts used their endeavours to support him. Recovering in a few minutes, he called for a knife, with which he stabbed himself in the body, and commanded a Jakut to drive in the weapon to the hilt; then going to the hearth, he took out three burning coals, and swallowing them, danced without discovering any symptoms of pain. At length he pulled the knife out of his body; and, after vomiting the coals with some difficulty, began to prophesy that the sick man would be better if he offered a horse to the wicked spirit which tormented him; at the same time defining the colour of the horse to be sacrificed. In all such cases, the lot, of course, always falls upon the fattest and choicest.

The shaman demand nothing for their trouble, but are contented with what is given them: they have, however, always the privilege of the first seat at the feast on the sacrifice, when they eat with a voracious appetite. For the evil spirit they set apart the head, legs, tail, and skin; which, when stretched upon a pole, are hung on a birch, or larch-tree, from whence they are never removed.

* The shamans only let their hair grow, the other Jakuts cutting theirs off, after the manner of the Russian peasantry.

The credit which the shamans enjoy with all these people, prevents them from being suspected of any deception; and the conceit of their holding an intercourse with evil spirits, confirms every one still more in the opinion, that whatever happens through the shaman is effected in a supernatural way by the aid of devils. This prejudice of course affords them an opportunity of imposing several tales and absurdities upon the superstitious ignorance of the multitude; such as pretending to have the power of knowing the past, present, and future; of commanding the winds and storms; of producing fine or bad weather; of finding things that are lost; of healing the sick, affording good sport to the hunter, &c. and all which they never neglect to turn to their own advantage.

CHAP. II.

DEPARTURE FOR OCHOTSK ON REINDEERS.—THE TUNGUSES.—THEIR JURTS AND MANNER OF LIVING.—ARRIVAL AT OCHOTSK.—REMARKS ON THE TOWN, ITS TRADE AND INHABITANTS.—THE FISHERY, AND DIFFERENT SORTS OF FISH.—FOWLING.—BIRDS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

THE messenger returned in twelve days, bringing with him twenty-five reindeer, a jurt, and two Tungusian families, with which I pursued my journey from Omekon on the 11th of March.

Some of the reindeer were employed for carrying our provisions and clothing, and others were saddled for our use. It was some time before I could accustom myself to this mode of riding without real inconvenience, the saddle having neither girths nor stirrups, and its smallness scarcely allowing me a firm seat. It rested on the shoulders of the reindeer, and was only tied by a single slight thong, so that with the smallest loss of balance I must inevitably have fallen. Another little thong slung round the neck of the creature served as a bridle.

The first day we went 30 versts. In the commencement the road led us over meadows, and afterwards through a woody vale surrounded with mountains. We took up our abode for the night on a mountain, abounding in moss, the favourite diet of the reindeer, where the jurt was erected. The Tunguse men having cut the poles for the jurt, and lighted the fire, the remainder was done by the women, who unloaded the reindeer, unpacked the baggage, and fixed up the jurt. These people carry about with them all the materials for such a shelter; such as the rowdugen, the pieces of bark sowed together for a co-

vering, the rings in which the poles are fastened, and the curtains used in the place of doors.

These jurts are commonly round, like those of the Calmucks, and conical towards the top, with an opening to give vent to the smoke; which, however, seldom ascends, particularly in severe weather, owing to the fire being made in the centre. The following days we pushed our journey over mountains, woods, and tundern*, by a rout known only to the Tunguses. On coming up to the tracks of some reindeer, our guides immediately informed us that their countrymen were not a day's distance from us; which proved to be accurate, as we overtook them in the evening at the place where they had encamped for the night. These people are all very clever in ascertaining, from the appearance of the reindeer tracks, both in winter and summer, not only the number of animals that have passed, but the length of time that has elapsed since the tracks were made. The next day they exchanged reindeer with us, giving us fresh ones in the place of our own, that were already jaded.

After some days we reached a spot on the river Ochota, called, by the Tunguses, Uega; where they assemble from all quarters, once a year, and hold a fair. Here the inhabitants of the towns meet the mountaineers, and barter their tobacco, knives, pins, tablets, and cloths, for reindeer skins and dried meat or fish. The former would be considerable gainers by this exchange, if, instead of throwing away their profits upon spirits, they carried home their merchandizes, and disposed of them at a good market.

The Tunguses are an itinerant people; throughout the whole year incessantly moving with their houses, family, and property, from place to place. Nothing but want, rain, or trade, can detain them a whole week in one spot; but they regard even this restraint as a great punishment. Their reindeer carry the effects, consisting of their clothes, jurt, and eatables; but they never load them with a greater weight than 60 pounds. Infants unable to ride are put in pannels, lined with moss on one side, having an equal weight on the other to preserve the balance. They resemble the Jakuts in their method of pacifying a crying infant, by giving it a piece of fat to suck. The men and women ride, leading the beasts of burden. The riches of the Tunguses consist altogether of reindeer, some of them having upwards of 2000, which usually graze in mossy places, and in great herds; but whatever may be the extent of their possessions, they are very loth to slaughter any of them for

*Tundern imply marshy, boggy countries, covered only with moss and a few small bushes.

food, unless they be any way damaged; they even prefer to endure hunger for many days, or content themselves with the bark of trees, or old shivelled skin, which they constantly carry about with them, to serve in case of exigency. They eat up every part of the animal which they kill, not throwing away even the impurities of the bowels, with which they make a sort of black puddings, by a mixture of blood and fat! They eat no raw meat, even when dried, but they are fond of the raw marrow from the bones, which having tasted myself, I did not find offensive.

On the 25th of March, our reindeer carried us to Arka; a place so called from the river of that name running into the Ochota. Here we found some pedestrian Tunguscs, who go on foot in summer for want of reindeer. In the winter they harness dogs to their *nartes*, and build then juts under ground; but in other respects do not differ from the other tribes of their nation.

At this place, I exchanged my reindeer for the dogs and the *nartes*. These are light sledges, about twelve feet long and two broad, and a foot and half high from the bottom. They are of so slight a structure that they may be conveyed by hand. Ten or twelve dogs are harnessed to them by means of small cords, with a large rein between, serving as a pole. The foremost couple are used to turn right or left at a word; but when the driver wishes to stop the *narte* he fixes his *oschtol* in the snow, through the sledge.

The *oschtol* is a thick staff tipped with iron, and having a rattle at one end, by which the pace of the dogs is quickened. Towards the spring this mode of travelling becomes excessively inconvenient, for the *nartes* having no indented seats, and the road being often uneven and steep, it is not unfrequent for the traveller to be thrown over, and sometimes pitched on the stumps of trees, or other hard substances, particularly when the dogs get scent of an animal, and become ungovernable. In pursuit of an otter, for example, they are not to be restrained from going into the water, and dragging their *nartes* after them; so that if the driver be not dexterous enough either to turn the conveyance, or to jump out, his life is in great danger.

Whenever there is a great fall of snow, or it be driven into unusually large heaps, then two or three persons are obliged to go before to make a track, and mark the road, by the position of the trees, mountains, and rivers: the snow, thus trodden, will be sufficiently firm to bear any weight until the return of warm weather.

On the 27th of March I arrived at Ochotsk, situated on the shore of the sea called by its name, close by the mouth and

conflux of the two rivers Ochota and Kuchtui. The Ochota washes its sandy gravelly beach every summer with vehemence, carrying away whole houses with it yearly; so that the town has already lost three streets within a short time; while, on the other hand, the beach receives an annual accession from the stones driven to it by the storms. The government having, therefore, resolved on transplanting the town to a safer situation, no new houses are now erected, and the old ones, which were built upon the establishment of the place, are falling to decay. Ochotsk has a wooden church, a palisadoed fortress, and some magazines. The inhabitants consist mostly of persons in military and civil capacities: the latter of whom principally belong to the lately established judicature in the stadtholdership of Irkutsk. On this establishment, Ochotsk became a capital, comprehending the peninsulas of Kamtschatka, the Aleutian and Kurilian islands, and the whole coast from Ochotsk to the Tschukatish cape, within its jurisdiction.

The trade of this place is carried on chiefly by merchants from other towns, who bring provisions and other merchandizes, of European or Asiatic manufacture, for the Russians, Tunguses, Jakuts, Kosaks, and Tschukatians; all of whom, except the first, make their payments in skins. There are also trading companies, having their agents, who build small craft at Ochotsk or Kamtschatka, and dispatch them to the Aleutian islands, and North America, for the purpose of collecting furs. The crew are hired from all parts of Russia, and the command of the whole is entrusted to an experienced trader, entitled *pere-dowschtschik*, or forerunner, who has been on two or three such expeditions before. Besides this, the government provides a mate and steersman to conduct the vessel. Their voyages frequently last ten years, and on their return, the produce is divided into certain portions, called *pai*.

Having made the object of my mission known to the commander, I commenced my examination of the vessels, stores, and building materials; but found every thing so shattered and decayed as to be totally unfit for use. In my rambles among the woods, I was not much more successful, having found, within the compass of above 100 wersts, but few trees sufficiently large for building our vessels. Nothing could exceed the toilsomeness of this research, although it was considerably relieved by the kindness of my worthy friend, the collegiate assessor Koch, who accompanied me purely from the desire of aiding me with his knowledge. We set off in the beginning of April, and were obliged to go 70 wersts in snow-shoes. Of these there are two sorts; those which are broad and covered underneath with reindeer skin, for the soft snow; and the others,

long, narrow, and plain, for the hard snow. From our inexperience in this mode of travelling, we often sprained our ankles, got entangled in the shrubs, or fell into heaps of snow so very deep, that neither of us could have been saved without the assistance of our attendants.

After my return, my first concern was to procure men to fetch the wood; but in this respect the commander was unable to afford me any great assistance; the few men he gave me being so afflicted with the scurvy that they could scarcely walk, much less do any labour. The poorer classes here are very subject to this disorder, owing partly to the damp and cold weather, and partly to their diet, which consists of salt fish and a sour liquid, called burduck. Meat and fresh fish are scarcely to be procured for money; every other kind of provision is to be purchased only at an immoderate price, a pound of butter costing three shillings; the same quantity of flower one shilling; oatmeal ninepence, and other things in proportion. People in any tolerable situation usually lay in their stock for the year at the summer fair, or procure it from Irkutsk; and those who cannot afford to do this must submit to all the hardships of want and bad food. On my arrival here, I might have experienced a similar fate if I had not met with so friendly a reception from the principal persons of the place, who not only invited me to their tables, but exerted their utmost to lessen the difficulties I had to encounter.

At the close of April, the Ochota was cleared from the ice; and the water swelling to an astonishing height, occupied all the lowlands with rapidity, but returned to its boundaries again in the space of ten days, when several sorts of fish, such as malmes*, kunsches, and kambales, began to make their appearance; which were succeeded by shoals of smelts and herrings, and afterwards by sturgeon and sea-calves. My people now beginning to collect strength from the return of spring and fresh fish, I sent them out after timber, a great quantity of which they felled for me in the summer months.

* The names of keta and malma are no where to be found, but the others are described as follows in the dictionary of the Russian Academy:—Kunsha, Salmo Cundsha, a sort of salmon. Its usual length is two feet; its tail forked; its scales silver-coloured, with a shade of blue on the side and white at the ends. It is found in the bay of the Northern Ocean, and the White Sea. *Kambala*, *Pleuronectes*. Under this appellation is comprehended many sorts of scaleless fish, with eyes on each side their longish round bodies.—Narka Salmo is a species of salmon about a yard long, and the fifth of a yard broad, with a red body, small head, five small reddish teeth on both sides, blue tongue, yet white on the side, a bluish back, with dark spots, and the tail a little arched. Its scales are large and round, and come off the skin very easily. They collect in great shoals in the river from the eastern and Penschinsk seas.

At the commencement of June, the abovementioned fish disappear, and give place to other sorts, as the keta and the narka, in size and appearance somewhat resembling the salmon, only that the narka has a much redder and firmer flesh; their taste is very pleasant, and in July they are in full season. In August and September, they come in such quantities as to change the quality of the water. The inhabitants at these times lay in a store for the year, both for their own use and that of their dogs, of which each person has one or two team, consisting of 12 or 24. These dogs differ in very few respects from those in Russia, except by barking less and howling more, which they frequently do, particularly towards the dawn of day; one takes the lead and is followed by all the rest in the town, which forms a concert of no very agreeable kind.

The fish are cured in various ways. The narka are stretched out and smoked in a chamber, peculiarly adapted for the purpose, then laid in a box and strewed with dried and powdered keta, which is said to be a good preservative. They are thus sent sometimes to Irkutsk and Jakutsk, but not in great quantities, on account of the difficulty or expence of the carriage. The keta are dried in the sun, the fat in the back-bone having first been taken out, in which state they are called jukol. The inferior of both kinds are given to the dogs. They are also salted in great tubs, either whole, or the spawn alone. Salt is here extracted during the summer from the sea-water, in an office belonging to the crown, situated about twelve versts from the town. At the close of autumn and commencement of September, when the fish are at their full size, they are caught without difficulty, being taken with the hand out of the sea, and thrown into pits fitted for the purpose, where they turn sour, corrupt, and dissolve. These are intended for the dogs in general, but are sometimes eaten by human beings. The Kamschadales, for example, esteem it the best and most delicious of all victuals, although the smell is so strong as to extend many versts distance from a pit newly opened. At the close of September, or the commencement of the frost, the keta, and another fish which comes at that time, called lomki, are left to freeze, and thus preserved in heaps for the winter.

The nets used for fishing are either smaller or larger according to the size of the fish to be caught. The larger nets are thrown out from the shore on long poles. In the fishing season they fill so rapidly that it is scarcely possible to draw them in quick enough to prevent their being overloaded. The Kosaks in particular, with their wives, attend to the nets at this time, indulging their appetites continually with the cartilage of the fishes' heads, which they regard as a great luxury. The dogs

have probably acquired from them the same propensity, for during the season of plenty they go to the water's side in search of fish for themselves, *and eat the heads only of whatever they catch.*

Birds of passage are very numerous here in spring and autumn. At the close of April and May geese and storks resort to the meadows in immense flocks, and the bays are covered with ducks of every description. In June they leave these parts, and are succeeded by snipes; but in July and August there is no other bird to be seen except sea-ducks, called *turpane*, which assemble here in vast quantities. This being their time of moulting, they are unable to fly, and fall an easy prey to the inhabitants, who surround them in their canoes*, and driving them into shallow parts of the water, jump in, and either kill or catch them alive in their hands. They then string them by means of an iron or bone skewer, on a long cord that hangs at their backs, which frequently affords an opportunity for those following to practise a theft on their neighbours, while eager in the pursuit, by cutting off their ducks and stringing them to their own.

The Tunguses have a mode of catching these birds by means of an artificial hen-duck, which, when stuck on a long pole, tipped with a sharp iron, and presented to the males, attracts them all towards it, and brings them within the reach of the fowlers. In lakes and standing waters, the ducks are likewise caught by snares, two different ways. They have a method of confining the creatures within a certain space by means of twigs, leaving openings only where the snares are fixed, by which the ducks are caught when they attempt to get out. By another method, they decoy the ducks with the spawn of fish into snares that are concealed under water.

Among the birds which frequent the forests and fields, are white-tailed eagles, woodcocks, and partridges. In the winter there is a remarkable bird called a water-sparrow, which makes its appearance on the open banks of the river. It is the size of a thrush, and has a black plumage: but although there is no web on its feet, it often dives, and continues some minutes under the water; yet it has not been observed to swim on the surface. There are no common sparrows here; and the crows are perfectly black. The mews are of five different sorts; namely, the † *semisashennjaa*, the grey and white spotted, the ‡ *goworuschka*, the || *mortyschka*, and the ¶ *rasboinika*. The first is

* This canoe is called *odnoderewka*, probably from its being constructed out of one tree only.

† *Semisashennaja*, from *sem*, seven, and *sashena*, fathom.—‡ *Goworka prater*, from *goworit*, to speak.—|| *Mortyschka sterna*, or scau-llow.—¶ *Rasboinika*, a plunderer.

unusually large; its outstretched wings, with the feet and head, comprehending an extent of 7 fathoms; and is so ravenous as to eat till it cannot move. The grey with white spots, are like ours in Europe, and resemble the goworuschka, except that they are rather smaller. The latter derive their name from sitting on the water and continually screaming. Mortyschka, the smallest kind, has short red feet, and a forked tail. The last description are black, of a middle size, with two long feathers in their tails. They never catch fish themselves, but plunder them from others; from which circumstance they have received their appellation.

CHAP III.

MR. BILLING'S ARRIVAL AT OCHOTSK.—MY FARTHER JOURNEY.—DANCE OF THE FOOT TUNGUSES.—ON THE INSTINCT OF THE FISH.—THE DOCTOR'S ASSISTANT LOSES HIS WAY.—DIFFICULTIES ON THE ROAD.—ARRIVAL AT THE FORTRESS OF WERCHNE-KOLYMSK.—JUKAGIRCANS.—THEIR MODE OF LIVING.—UNEXPECTED FIRE.

MR. Billing, our commander, arriving at Ochotsk, in July, with the remainder of the expedition, I was again dispatched to the fortress of Werchne-Kolymsk, and being provided with some attendants and a hundred of the best horses just come from Irkutsk, I set off on the 1st of August.

Our road, for the first 75 versts, to the village of Mundakan, was very good, with the exception of occasional floods, through which we were obliged to wade. It afforded us every where fine prospects. The woods consisted principally of larch-trees, here and there intermixed with beeches and alders. The islands scattered along the rivers are covered with willows, poplars, and pines; the leaves of which latter trees afford a very delightful aromatic odour. The road itself is often lined with eglantine and shimolost, which yields sweet berries that are in great esteem here. The shimolost, or *Lonicera xylosteum*, is a shrub, not exceeding a fathom in height, having a grey smooth bark and spiral leaves. Two white blossoms grow on each stem. The fruit is an orbicular, succulent, red berry, having four small stones, and is the favourite diet of many birds. The wood is used for ram-rods, pipe-tubes, &c. The Tartarian shimolost is a finer species of this kind, which grows much higher, and has smooth leaves in the form of a heart; its double blossom is of a pale flesh colour, and its berries of a pale orange colour. It is a native of Siberia, and is literally a species of wild cherry. Bilberries and knaesheniza are likewise to be found in some

parts; the latter resembling the wild strawberry both in appearance and leaf; but its blossom is rose-coloured. The berries have a very agreeable perfume and fine flavour. It is the pleasantest fruit growing in the northern countries, and is abundant in Sweden, Russia, Siberia, and Canada. From the blossom and leaves the inhabitants make both tea and a decoction, which is in high estimation for pectoral complaints. The richness and verdure of the meadows, every where overspread with luxuriant grass, might be supposed to denote a prolific soil, and yet the repeated experience of the government evinces that it is unfit for the production of grain. This is, perhaps, less attributable to the soil itself than to the shortness of the summer and the depth of the snow, which continues on the ground, in some places, until June. The weather is cold and damp the greater part of the year, and not unfrequently so in that season when heat is indispensable for bringing the corn to maturity. For this reason, the vegetables and garden fruits are far inferior to those in other places lying nearer to the north pole, where, as in Archangel for example, they have a better climate. The cabbage here has no stem whatever, but shoots forth in leaves only. Potatoes, turnips, and radishes, grow but to a very insignificant size.

Our road continued dry and agreeable twenty versts beyond Mundakan, after which we had to pass through marshes and mountains. The moss of these marshes is so entangled with the roots of the trees as to form a tolerably firm, but yet movable ground, which yields to the tread of the horse. Sometimes the traveller sinks in, and requires the assistance of all his companions to help him out; but in such cases it is easy to find a safer way. These treacherous spots are termed *baidaranen*. The moroschka, a fruit peculiar to marshes, is found in great abundance here, particularly in brooks and vallies, which produce also some bilberries. The berries of the moroschka, *Rubus chamaemorus*, are of a yellowish colour, the size of a cherry, and of a semicircular form, composed of many small triangular grains, lying together in double rows. Its pulp is very succulent, inclosed in a thin brittle husk.

After a journey of six days, we arrived at Arka, a place belonging to the pedestrian Tunguses, lying about a hundred versts from Ochotsk, at the mouth of a tolerably large river of the same name, which runs into the Ochota. Our commander overtook us this day with all his attendants, except the boatswain, who had fallen from his horse in crossing a piece of water, and was drowned. We found the inhabitants fishing for the keta, which ~~was~~ very abundant here in this season. The shallowness and clearness of the water afforded them the advantage of distin-

guishing the fattest fish, which they strike so dexterously with their spikes as never to miss their aim. This spike, in Russian bagor, is an instrument particularly in use among the Kosaks on the Ural, and at the fishing of the Wolga, consisting of an iron spike, with two points, fastened in a long stick.

After supper our landlords gave us a dance, in which men and women forming a circle, jumped to a tune that consisted of the two words ochur, juchur, continually repeated. However wretched the condition of these people may apparently be, they are incomparably more happy than many of the cultivated sons of fortune, who riot in uninterrupted luxury. To variety and care they are alike strangers. Their wants are extremely limited; an abundance of fish is the height of their happiness, as it constitutes their principal subsistence. They barter it likewise with their reindeer Tunguses for their clothing.

We now pursued our course all together, passing over a diversity of mountains, and through numerous rivers. The weather, which had hitherto been favourable, changed to rain on the 9th, that continued for twenty-four hours without intermission. In addition to which, our guides were now unable to conduct us farther. We fortunately met with some other Tunguses, four of whom we engaged, with twenty-two reindeer. From the river Uega, where we had just been stopping, the road became insupportably tedious, leading perpetually through mountainous and marshy countries, and sometimes being totally blocked up by the trees which had been only half consumed in a conflagration*. Our horses suffered so seriously from the fatigue, that we were obliged to leave many of them in the wood; and meeting soon after with a convenient place for a night's lodging, which yielded good fodder, we resolved on resting the following day in this place.

We spent this day in shooting and fishing, and caught many of the chariust† in our nets; among which was a narka, in a perfect

* In the country around Petersburg it is not unfrequent for extensive woods to be consumed. The fire commonly arises from the negligence of the peasantry coming in bodies to the city, whose fires, towards the evening, afford an agreeable prospect.

† *Charus, salmo thymallus*, a species of salmon; its head is rather small, obtuse, and spotted black, the under part and the sides having a bluish cast; its gills are furnished with two rows of teeth, extended into its throat. Its body is covered with a thick firm scale, its back dark green and rather arched, its sides flattened and of a grey bluish colour. From the head to the tail a bluish stripe runs down on every scale, the middle of which is spotted black. The belly is white, the pectoral fins small and yellowish; those on the side, tail, and belly, reddish; that on its back large, yellowish in the beginning and reddish at the ends, having four rows of round spots. The charus frequents the rapidly flowing springs of the mountains, and is two feet long. Its flesh is white, firm, delicate, and fat.

state of transformation, having scarcely a single mark of similarity with its kind remaining. Deep red and dark blue spots supplied the place of scales; its gills were quite bent; its teeth grown out long; its body become pulpy and spongy, and on its back it had an excrescence. It had probably strayed into this lake through a brook communicating with the Ochota, notwithstanding the velocity with which it rushed down the mountain. In fact, the keta and narka appear to be impelled by a particular instinct towards the rivers; for they continually force themselves up in spite of every obstacle, and when disabled, from loss of strength, to proceed any farther, they generally perish and moulder away on the shore: few, therefore, ever return to the sea. We should naturally suppose, from the prodigious number of narka and keta continually passing every year from the sea into the rivers, that these species of fish would soon become extinct; but the contrary being the case, we are led to the conclusion, that the spawn of the dead fish is carried back into the sea, and there brought to perfection.

On the 15th, our commander went forward, taking with him the doctor, two chasseurs, and some Tunguses as guides. The second day after the doctor's departure, his assistant, Mr. Main, an Englishman, staying behind to collect stones, missed his way: we did not perceive his absence until the time of our encampment for the night; and were, therefore, obliged the next day to retrace our steps in search of him, when we found him in the afternoon in a wood. His horse having run away, he had missed his road in pursuing him, and not knowing what step to take, resolved on returning to the first Tungusish dwelling: which would, however, have been scarcely practicable, there being no such dwelling within the distance of 100 versts.

After following the course of the Ochota for the distance of 400 versts, we at length turned off to the right, and reached the source of the river Kundussu; the shallow parts of which are occupied with masses of ice four feet in height, that appear never to be dissolved*. Here we had the misfortune to lose our Tungusish guide, who absconded with several of the reindeer, and brought us into the most unpleasant dilemma. We were totally unacquainted with the way forward, and had no other alternative than to follow the steps of Captain Billing, whenever we could trace them, which was, unfortunately, but seldom the case, the road generally leading over moss-grown places, and every Tunguse taking the direction which struck him to be the best. By the exercise of our judgment and patience, we,

* This ice is probably accumulated by the water spouting forth from the springs of the river.



*Man & Woman among the Tungusic Reindeer breeders
in their Summer dresses.*

however, succeeded, after a tormenting search for 60 versts, in finding a Jakutish track over meadows, that promised to bring us to an inhabited spot: but in this we were disappointed; for after a journey of 18 versts farther we came to some empty Jakutish jurts, from whence the road took five different directions. I dispatched some of my people in several directions, and obtained the next morning, to my no small satisfaction, a Jakut, who offered to conduct us to the jurts of the Jakutish knask. He fulfilled his promise, and carried us in nine days to the desired spot, where we found Captain Billings waiting for us. Here we were obliged to stop five days for fresh horses, which were to be collected from the distant jurts.

On the 29th, we pursued our journey in two distinct parties; Captain Billings proceeding forwards with one sailor and three chasseurs. The first day we waded through the river Omekon, and passed along two other rivers, until we reached the Atschugni-taryn-urach, or little icy stream, which is so called from its being continually covered with ice of an almost incredible thickness. Sixty versts farther, after wading through the Ulachan-taryn-urach, or large icy river, we had to ascend two high mountains, about a verst distant from each other. The former is covered with small larches, moss, and cedar shrubs, which do not rise above two fathoms in height, and yield fruit but every other year. The latter, which is higher than any in that quarter, extending from south-east to north-west, is covered only half way up with moss, the rest consisting of naked rock. We effected our ascent and descent with the utmost difficulty, being obliged, from its exceeding steepness, to creep rather than walk, for fear of rolling down. The horses, though very tame and accustomed to such roads, were not all able to keep their feet. Our course then led us alternately over beautiful meadows and large rivers, or through woody and mountainous countries. The Tunguses usually repair in the summer to the open summits of these mountains to catch the wild sheep which frequent those parts, or to graze their reindeer, which are here less tormented by the insects than in the forests.

Our guides being unable to conduct us farther, I was obliged to wait some few versts distance from Werchno-kolymsk, until a suitable person could arrive from the neighbouring Jakutish jurts, called Kyssyl Balyktach, after the name of a peculiar fish, which is caught by the inhabitants in their lake. The fatigues of the journey were rather increased than diminished towards the close. The roads, which were either sandy or marshy, exhausted our horses to that degree, that we sometimes despaired of reaching the point of destination. On our arrival we found Captain Billings and his attendants, but none of the

baggage, which had been left behind, owing to the badness of the roads. The greatest part of our horses being totally disabled, it was necessary to procure a fresh set for the purpose of fetching the luggage.

The fortress (Ostrog) of Werelma-kolynisk, is situated on the right bank of the river Jassachna, two versts distance from its conflux with the Kolyma. It consists of five peasants' huts, three jurts, and a separate court surrounded with a paling, in the middle of which is a black log-house (isba) and some granaries. In this narrow spot it was no easy matter to dispose of all our people. Our commander chose the best isba, whilst two of my companions and myself took up our lodging in a jurt. The greater part of the crew were obliged to reside in the woods until a shelter could be made for them, besides which it was necessary to build a forge and an oven for drying the biscuit.

In the mean time the felling and transportation of the timber for our vessels was commenced with vigour, although the passage of the river was rather impeded by the frost, which set in on the 27th of September; yet as soon as it was frozen sufficiently firm to admit of any weight, we conveyed the wood over the ice by means of horses borrowed from a small body of Jakuts, who had lately settled in those parts at a distance from the fortress. These Jakuts have but a small quantity of cattle, and subsist principally by fishing. In the winter they travel only with dogs, by which they are distinguished from the rest of their nation.

At the commencement of the frost, and previous to the closing of the river, the people were busy with their nets in catching a particular sort of fish called tshirai. Afterwards they made openings in the ice, in order to catch eelpouts; the largest of which weighed 25 pounds. The cold at this time, in the middle of October, was 30 deg. Reaumur.

In this month, Mr. Billings and the doctor went a journey of 40 versts up the river, to a little place inhabited by some families of the Jukagirens. This was formerly a very rich tribe, who had kept their neighbours in awe, and possessed dominion over a vast extent of territory, until the greater part of them being swept away by the small-pox, and another contagious disorder, called here kilikiuska, the Kosaks and Tunguses, their ancient enemies, gained the upper hand, and retaliated on them by every act of oppression in fishing and hunting; which gave rise to a war that exterminated almost entirely the little residue of their people. The stragglers who had escaped this last ravage sought protection from the Russians, and took up their residence in the proximity of the fortress. The close intercourse thus

arising between the Jukagirens and the Kosaks gradually assimilated the customs and dress of the former to those of the latter. But previously to this, their way of living entirely resembled that of the Tunguses; having, like them, their reindeer and their jurts, with which they strolled from place to place. At present they live in hovels, and make use of dogs in lieu of reindeer, for their winter excursions. Their food consists of fish and the flesh of elks, which are very abundant in the islands and rivers; particularly of the river Korkodon, which flows into the Kolyma 200 versts distant from the fortress. Thither the Jukagirens usually repair in April with their dog-sledges to hunt not only elks, but also sables, foxes, reindeers, and every species of animals which afford fur. They pursue the elks in snow-shoes, and run them down, until they are so perfectly enfeebled as to fall an easy prey to the huntsman. In this pursuit the latter have every advantage; for the immensely deep snows and the *NASTEN* *, so frequent in that season, which are no impediments to them or their dogs, continually stop the creatures in their career, and combine with their natural unwieldiness to prevent their escape. They cut the flesh into long thin slices, and dry them in the air. As soon as the river is free from ice they swim on floats to the fortress, where a festivity and carousal commences among the Kosaks, with whom they barter their spoil for the necessaries fetched from the town, but above all for tobacco, to which they are immoderately attached. This fair commonly lasts until the river, which has overflowed the country, returns to its bounds, when they separate and take various directions for the purpose of fishing.

Since their connexion with the Kosaks, the Jukagirens have made a profession of Christianity, blended, indeed, with their own superstitions; particularly the incantations of the Schamans. In this particular the Kosaks, who cannot boast of a much brighter illumination, have but too faithfully adopted their errors. They ascribe every sickness to witchcraft, and even imagine themselves sometimes to be under the influence of some evil spirit. For which reason they have a peculiar dread of one female Jakut, named *Agraphema Schiganska*, a xhaman of great influence, who died thirty years ago. They fancy that she visits the people in order to torment them, and must therefore receive their homage and sacrifices. Active as the government of Jakutsk has been in their endeavours to destroy this superstition, they

* The hardened surface of the snow, occasioned only in spring by its thawing in the day and freezing again at night.

have hitherto been very unsuccessful. They even sent an order to the town of Schigansk, for search to be made after the body of this Agraphenna, that it might be consumed; but this was equally inefficacious in its influence on the superstitious multitude. Their Jakutish schamans spare no pains to preserve the credit of the witch, declaring that they could never venture to lay any spirit without first offering a sacrifice to her; for were she in the slightest degree to be neglected, she would make her appearance among them and exercise her vengeance.

In January the cold rose to 43 degrees, and was so severe as to impede respiration. The very vapour from the breath was converted into icicles, which, from continual attrition, were incessantly crackling. The power of the sun was then too feeble to communicate any warmth to the atmosphere, making its appearance only for a short time at noon, on the summit of the horizon, and sending forth its rays in an oblique direction. It is worthy of observation at the same time, that the most perfect calm attends an extreme state of cold, which subsides instantly on the least motion of the wind. The thermometer, with quicksilver, was now rendered perfectly useless, the purest kind of quicksilver being frozen by a cold of 33 degrees; we were therefore obliged to content ourselves with spirits in its stead.

Whilst the weather permitted it, we had made some sporting excursions into the woods in pursuit of partridges and woodcocks, but now it was scarcely possible to pass from one dwelling to another. Our provisions, therefore, began to fall short, the season for fish being over, which had constituted our principal subsistence. Had we in this moment of plenty adopted a system of precaution and economy, we need not have aggravated the sufferings from cold by those of hunger. We had then thrown away the head of an eelpout, which we now gladly scratched up from the snow, and eat with avidity. In addition to this, the scurvy, the common attendant on want, began to make its appearance.

During the month of November we had nearly finished one of our vessels, which was 45 feet in length, and received the name of Pallas. In the month of April we renewed our labours with a second, which was only 28 feet long, and named Jassachna. The ignorance of our carpenter, combined with the total inexperience of all the rest in every thing relative to the building of a vessel, naturally retarded our progress in this business; nor would it, perhaps, have ever been brought to bear, if the more intelligent of the party had not exercised their ingenuity in contrivance. The tar not being of a proper consistency which was procured at Jakutsk, we were obliged to mix

sulphur with it, that was obtained from the larch-trees, which, when boiled together, produced a composition not inferior in quality to the best sort of pitch.

In the night of the 13th of May, a fire broke out in the habitation of the doctor and mechanic, owing, probably, to some negligence in extinguishing the coals on the hearth. The flames spread over the whole house in an instant, and extended to an adjacent store-house, in which the spirituous liquors belonging to the crown were preserved. Not the slightest article in the house could be saved, but happily no lives were lost.

According to several observations, we fixed the latitude of Werchne-kolymsk at $60^{\circ} 21'$ north, and the deviation of the compass at 70° .

The river being now perfectly clear of ice, our vessels, which were in an entire state of readiness, were launched in very high water on the 5th of May. After every necessary arrangement was made for our voyage, in which the command of the second vessel was consigned to me, we weighed anchor on the 22d, and were carried down by the stream with immense rapidity to the river Kolyma, which branches out into many smaller streams, that are lost in it again at the distance of a few versts. Many of these arms are perfectly dried up at the fall of the water.

About noon we passed the mouth of the river Magaseika, flowing to the left, which received its name from the circumstance of magazines being built at its source not far from Saschiwersk, in which the provisions were formerly kept that were afterwards conveyed by Saschiwersk to the fortress of Anadyrsk. The passage by the Kolyma not being then known, it was necessary to take the circuit of the two arms Magaseika and Oshogina.

Towards evening we received a visit of curiosity from a knask, residing on the banks of a little lake, who paddling towards us in his canoe, seemed very desirous to take a nearer survey of our vessel. Learning from him that the Pallas had not yet sailed past, we cast anchor until midnight, when it overtook us.

After passing on the 27th *the Cluster of Islands*, as they are termed, which are seven in number, we reached the *Trinity Islands*, and river of the same name; probably so called from the hunters, who were going to erect a church here in the name of the Holy Trinity; but opinions being divided between this and another place, it was decided by lot, which fell upon the

spot where Sredne-kolymsk now stands. The church, therefore, and soon after that the fortress, were there erected.

By Kamenka, a considerable river issuing from the mountains, which we left to the right on the 28th, as well as by the Troizka, the Jakuts and Tunguses catch many foxes, otters, unicorns, and sometimes sables, which are said to have been formerly very abundant in these parts.

Here, from the mouth of the Sranka to the fortress of Sredne-kolymsk, the Kosaks of Werchne and Sredne-kolymsk, have their summer encampments, for the purpose of providing themselves and their dogs with fish. They catch them with nets, and cure their *jukol* as usual by drying. The *neolma*, *muksum*, *tschina*, and, towards the autumn, herrings, are the most abundant here. In the evening we stopped at Sredne-kolymsk, a wooden fortress, situated on the left bank of the Kolyma, having a church and some houses. It was formerly called *Jarnianka*, (fair) because all the inhabitants from an immense distance, as Tunguses, Jakuts, and *Jukagirens*, assembled here for the purposes of trade. They bartered their skins with the Jakutish and Kosak merchants, for tobacco and other trifling articles. The quantity of skins, particularly from the sables, taken near the river Kolyma, was so considerable as to furnish a yearly revenue of 4000 to the crown, being a tenth of the whole amount; from whence this tax had the name of a *tythe*. The sables having all now disappeared from this quarter, the fair has, of course, been totally abandoned.

On the 17th of June, we stopped at the mouth of the Onclon, on the left bank of which we discovered the summer encampment of the peasants of Onclon. During this season they are engaged in fishing until autumn, when they return to their village, lying about 20 versts distance from the river. On the other side of this village there are Jakutish *kagirens* still remaining.

The river Onclon, together with the *Inshiga* and the *Oen-shina*, issues from a chain of mountains, and receives the addition of five rather inconsiderable rivers; three from the right and two from the left; one of which is the *Magaseika* above-mentioned. Four hundred versts up the Onclon is an old wooden structure, erected probably on the discovery of the river by the Russian hunters, who had undertaken their excursion in *kotschen**, from the river *Leua* into the Frozen Ocean, and from thence to the mouth of the Kolyma, which leads to the Onclon.

* A flat-bottomed vessel very similar to a barge.

In a summer residence on this river, we found Captain Inshiginsk Schmalew Satnik Koblew, and the Tochukotish interpreter, Daurkin, waiting for us agreeable to appointment. They were to act as our interpreters with the savage people, called Tschukschens, whom we might chance to meet in the Frozen Ocean. Mr. Schmalew, who was destined for my vessel, was a man well qualified for this situation, having been some years commander of Inshiga, where, by his suavity and presents, he had gained the confidence and good will of the Tschukschens, who yearly resort thither for purposes of trade.

After lying at anchor but three hours, we followed the course of the river and reached Nisma-kolymisk, situated on the left bank of the Kolyma, in 24 hours. The fortress includes within its wooden barricade, one church and 33 houses; together with 33 Kosak inhabitants. Opposite to this fortress, the two large rivers, the *Great Anni* and the *Dry Anni*, run, at an inconsiderable distance, into the Kolyma. The former of these extends 800, and the latter 500 versts. The banks of both are inhabited by Jukagirens.

The swimming of the reindeer across the Omelon and the two Annis affords an extraordinary spectacle twice a year; viz. at the close of May, when the wild reindeer abandon the woods in great herds, probably with a view of seeking shelter from the gnats within the neighbourhood of the sea, and afterwards in autumn, on their return; in both which cases they are obliged to pass these rivers. The Kosak and Jukagiren inhabitants of these parts, who know the favourite haunts of these creatures, repair then in their canoes to the spot, and pierce them in the water with the greatest facility, sometimes to the number of 60 in a day. They do not swim over all together in a body, but one after another; and as soon as their leader has reached the opposite shore, they are not to be diverted from following him by any prospect of danger: if he, however, be interrupted in his course, he instantly returns, and the whole herd after him.

The flesh of reindeer forms a principal article of diet for the people of this country. They cut it into thin slices, and dry it after the manner of their fish. The marrow and tongue are esteemed as delicacies. Another luxury which they have, is red bilberries mashed with dried fish, and the fat of fish, with which they make their most costly entertainments in the summer. In the winter they eat frozen and raw fish in its stead, particularly tschirens, which they mince very small, and then give the name of stroganvoi. It is reputed to be very salutary against the scurvy, for which reason we adopted it as a regular remedy during our winter stay at Werchne-kolymisk.

We were detained four days at Nishne-kolymsk for the repairs of our vessels; the smaller one in particular, which, for want of ballast, was frequently in danger of being upset. We took in likewise 30 puds of dried reindeer's flesh, and 150 puds salted; which the Jukagirens cured for us with the salt we gave them, for this is a scarce article with them, and is obtained from Jakutsk at an exorbitant price. Whilst lying at anchor, we had clear warm weather and scarcely any wind, but were tormented with gnats to so immoderate a degree, that we were obliged to protect our faces and hands from them by a constant covering.

On the 19th, the Pallas weighed anchor and proceeded down the river. My ship not being ready, I could not sail until the third day after its departure. We had not proceeded 20 versts before we discovered three lofty mountains on the right bank of the Kolyma; one of which is called Pountelegews, the other Sorowsberg, and the third Belaga Jopka. The Kosaks from Nishne-kolymsk have their summer encampment at the foot of the first, by the river Ambonicha. Sixty versts from this fortress, the river Kolyma divides and falls by two branches into the sea. The course we took, which bore to the east, is called the *Stony Way*, probably from its right bank being occupied by stony precipices and stupendous crags.

In the afternoon of the next day we passed the winter residence of the merchant Schalanrow, situated on the right bank. He undertook a voyage in the Frozen Ocean, but finding too many obstacles to oppose his progress, passed the winter season here. The next year he made another trial, that proved fatal to the vessel and himself with his whole crew. The former being dashed to pieces by the ice, was thrown on the shore, and the latter perished by hunger, according to the account of the Tschukschens.

We descried likewise, at a distance of five versts, in a straight line before us, the lighthouse which Lieutenant Laptzew built in 1735, as he was surveying the shore of the Frozen Ocean. Not very far to the left of this lighthouse we observed an island not marked in Laptzew's map, which he most probably overlooked from its low situation, unless we are to suppose that it has made its appearance since that period. It is, however, at least fair to conclude, that the water has undergone some change within these late years, for otherwise he could not have gone on land to build the sheds for his people, which are still remaining. At present its depth in full tide is not sufficient to admit the smallest craft, and at ebb it leaves the bottom of the river dry for the space of three versts.

Misty and stormy weather prevented us from making any great progress for three days. On the fourth we descried the ocean, covered with immense sheets of ice, that, at a distance, appeared to be one compact mass; but were, as we discovered on a nearer view, driven together towards the shore by a north-east wind and the tide. We endeavoured to penetrate betwixt the ice and the shore, but were compelled, towards evening, to give up the attempt, and seek a shelter under the projecting rocks of a little river flowing from the mountains. The shore extended by an ascent of four fathoms above the surface of the water to the rock of Baranow. It was covered with moss and sea-weeds, having here and there a scattered flower, willow, or shrub, that was almost too small to be distinguishable. The summits of the mountains, and even the declivities of the rocks below, were incrustated with congealed snow. During the three days spent here, we discovered four bears and a whole herd of reindeer.

The wind changing on the fourth day, and driving the ice more directly towards us, we were compelled to weigh anchor, and, with infinite difficulty as well as danger, to force our way close by the pendant rock. We succeeded very soon in finding a retreat near the opening of a mountain, from which issued a spring of pure water. Here we caught a vast quantity of herrings in nets, and saw some sea-calves.

From different observations we fixed the latitude of this place at $69^{\circ} 29'$, although all maps have hitherto assigned to the shore of the Frozen Ocean a position two degrees more northerly.

CHAP. V.

FRUITLESS ATTEMPTS TO FIND A PASSAGE TO THE NORTH AND EAST.—ANCHORAGE OFF THE ISLAND OF BARANOW—REINDEER—WILD GEESSE CHACE—THEIR PRESERVATION.—THE INHABITANTS OF THIS PART—REMARKS ON THE FROZEN OCEAN.—RETURN TO SREDNE-KOLYMSK.

ON the first of July we weighed anchor, and made two trials to proceed, first in a northerly, and afterwards in an easterly, direction; but the mist and the ice were each time unfavourable to our designs. My little bark was frequently in danger of being shattered to pieces by the masses of ice which were driving around us with impetuosity, and at length our safety obliged us to retreat towards the shore of the rock of Baranow.

During our stay here we sent our steersman up the rock to take a survey of the ocean. He brought us the intelligence, that he had observed, from the summit of the loftiest mountain,

but one sheet of ice, which extended as far as his eye could reach to the east. We were satisfied, by this information, of the impossibility of taking an easterly direction, but desirous of obtaining ocular demonstration, the commander, doctor, and myself, set off for the same route. On our passage over the smaller mountains we met with several reindeer, which differ from the rest of their species by never leaving the sea-side winter or summer. They never associate with the others, whose tracks were likewise every where discernible. The lakes of these parts abound with wild geese of a large species, and a grey colour, called *gumaniken*: it being their season for moulting, they could not easily escape our pursuit. The Kosaks here catch them with great facility, by driving them in vast flocks to the most distant shallow spots they can find, where they knock them down with clubs, and throw them into pits dug for the purpose. Here they lie for years without suffering the slightest change: for the earth with which the geese are covered, does not thaw even in summer to the depth of above half a yard. By this means, human bodies are kept in a higher state of preservation than by the method of embalming; for not only the component parts of the frame, but the very clothing will thus remain unimpaired.

From the summit of the rock we also beheld the whole sea to the east covered with nothing but ice. The shore which bounds this glassy surface is not much elevated, but its extremity appeared to be a mountainous head of land, about 50 versts distance, which I take to be what is designated on Schaulaurow's map by the appellation of Keschtschemoi (sandy), that terminates at the bay, where he looked for the river Tschann. It is possible for this to be the dwelling-place of the well-known Tschukotian, prince Kopai, from whom the Kosak Wiligin received the first jassak in the year 1723*.

On my return from the rock, I found an old wooden cross lying on the ground, with its underside perfectly decayed. The inscription, if there ever had been one, was now entirely effaced. From its apparent age, I should date the erection of it as far back as the year 1640, when this place was visited in cotschen (barges). I saw another old cross by the summer encampment on the Omelon, on which the date of the year 1718 was still visible. The inhabitants of that part directed my attention to some holes supposed to have been pierced by the arrows of the Tschukschens, who sometimes used to attack the Russian establishments.

On the 17th we made another effort to put to sea, but had

* This jassak is an impost in kind, consisting mostly of furs, which is every year demanded of the tributary nations in Siberia.

not proceeded 30 versts before an indescribably thick mist impeded our advance, and the ice perpetually accumulating, so as to heighten our danger every moment, we came to the unanimous resolution of returning to the Kolyma, and directed our course round the rock of Baranow. This rock is formed by many contiguous mountains projecting with a cape into the sea, which describes a semicircle. On its summit there are many stone pillars, some resembling the rubbish of a ruined fortress, others bearing the appearance of remains of buildings falling to decay, and of the images of men. While lying at anchor, we could distinguish on one of the lower mountains a pillar of this description, which seemed to represent two women in conversation, and holding a child between them. These pillars are in fact nothing but solid stone, from which the external incrustation of mail has fallen off. Besides a number of sturgeon and sea-calves, we saw a whale here, an incontrovertible proof, that the Frozen Ocean has some connection with another sea to the north or the east.

In the afternoon of the 22d we waited at anchor for the Pallas, in a little nook of the shore on the north side of the rock, where two projecting cliffs sheltered us against the winds and floating masses of ice.

The shore in the middle of this nook, which is steep and sandy, is enclosed on both sides by lofty mountains, from which issue many springs of pure water. Although this little vale afforded nothing more remarkable than a weed, with some unusually beautiful blossoms, yet the prospect of vegetable nature, even in her humblest attire, was truly gratifying to us, after having witnessed nothing but dreary objects for such a length of time.

At the brink of one spring, I discovered, at no great distance from each other, two subterraneous jirts in a ruinous state. On turning over the earth, they appeared to be round, and about three yards in circumference. In the interior we found the bones of reindeer and sea-calves, as also several earthen potsherds, and two stone knives with three edges, one of which was crooked and sharp, the other two straight and blunt. One of these knives I gave to the captain, and the other to the doctor. The Kosaks of Kolymisk informed us, that the former inhabitants of this place, who must have been unquestionably Tschukschians, called themselves Schalags, and on the settlement of the Russians here, moved farther to the west, and took up their residence near the northern cape, from that time denominated Schalagian.

Of the wood, which is driven in great quantities to this shore, we raised a cross, and specified on it the day and year of its erection. During the time of our lying at anchor here, the ice

perpetually drifted towards the east. The tide along the shore changed every day, or every other day, and the water sometimes gained the height of a foot, but never exceeded it, and even that occurred without any regularity; which circumstance has given rise to the suggestion, that this sea cannot be of great extent, being bounded at no great distance by land to the north, and connected by a straight to the Northern Ocean. It is otherwise not easy to account for this deviation from the universal law of nature with regard to great seas.

The opinion that the continent lay in a northerly direction, was confirmed by a high south wind, on the 22d of June, which continued with the greatest violence for 48 hours. Had there then been no hinderance, the ice must have been necessarily driven very far towards the north: instead of which, we found the sea next morning quite covered. Captain Schmalew also informed me, that the Tschukschians had spoken to him of a continent towards that point, not very distant from the Schelagian promontory, which was inhabited; and at the same time they observed, that the Schelagian Tschukschians used in winter to cross over to that place in a day.

The wind becoming favourable on the 26th of July, we weighed anchor, and bore away, with a gentle breeze, to the mouth of the Kolyma, and from thence to Nishne-Kolymsk, where we landed in safety; and thus terminated our excursion in the Frozen Ocean, which was no less fatiguing than dangerous.

From the foregoing it is manifest, that every other trial to cross the Frozen Ocean would have been fruitless. Mr. Billings therefore assembled the officers to consult on the easiest and least dangerous method of encompassing, either by land or sea, the Ichalagan and Tschukotian promontory. The way by the mouth of the Kolyma had already been proved by experience to be blocked up by the immense masses of ice. For although the sea has been found by preceding navigators to be sometimes clear, yet none of these enterprising mariners have succeeded in opening the passage to the Eastern Ocean, except Deshnew, a single Kosak, who made the experiment in 1648, in a barge. Great doubts, however, are entertained of his veracity, and it is strongly suspected, that Deshnew collected most of his information respecting those shores from the Tschukschians, and supplied the rest by his own invention.

But granting the truth of Deshnew's narrations, it only evinces that Nature may once in a hundred years deviate from her established rule. The Kosaks here assured us, that such quantities of ice are always in the sea as to prevent any one from going even out of the river, and they considered this summer as having been unusually favourable for such an enterprise. But if we judge from

the trifling warmth of this summer, and the faint influence of the sun's rays through the impeneable mists, we may fairly conclude, that not half the ice is thawed in summer, which is formed in winter; not to mention, that the sea is the common reservoir for the ice of the snowing rivers. From whence it follows, that the difference in the quantity of ice is not so much to be ascribed to any variations of the summer heat, as to the direction of the winds, for impeding or assisting its passage out of the ocean.

One measure we had still in reserve, namely, that of going round the above-mentioned cape in sledges; but this was rejected as impracticable, from the circumstance of not being able to supply the dogs with provisions for above 200 verst. At length we came to the resolution of giving up all farther thoughts on the matter until after our intended examination of the Eastern Ocean. For which purpose, Golok Lob'sew, and the interpreter Darkun, were ordered to go to Irkutsk, and from thence to accompany the Irkutsk's crew, who frequent that place every year for the purposes of trade, to Yakotskoi nos, in order to apprise the various inhabitants of our arrival, and wait for us in Behning's strait. As the cold in this climate now commencing, we found it prudent to lose no time in making arrangements for our departure to Sredne-Kolymsk by water. Our vessels being accordingly manned, and committed to the care of the governor, Martimow, the commander, with part of the crew, took boats and were rowed up the river, leaving me with the remainder behind to store the *Jurachin* with provisions for four months. The day after the captain's departure, a brace arrived at Nishne-Kolymsk with the necessary stores: the vessel I judged would be better for towing along the shoal of the coast than the large vessel; and packing therefore all my baggage in it, divided the crew into two parties, which were alternately to relieve each other. Thus disposed, we reached Sredne-Kolymsk in twenty days. The only circumstance worthy of note which occurred in this interval, was an aerial combat betwixt an eagle and two hawks, which was both an extraordinary and interesting spectacle. The two hawks first took a sweep in the air above the eagle; one of them then darted down with the intent of commencing the attack, but intimidated by the display of the eagle's talons, turned off, and shot past him. The other in the mean time seized the moment in which the eagle was off his guard to give him a blow so violent that we distinctly heard the sound of it; which was repeated by the first hawk, before the eagle could place himself in a state of defence. Feeling his inferiority against two such powerful enemies, the eagle retired

from the contest, and descending in haste, was closely pursued by the two hawks until he had alighted.

The roads to Jakutsk being impassable on our arrival at Sredne-Kolymsk, we were obliged to wait for the frost, which sets in in September. On the 18th the Kolyma was covered with ice, and the inhabitants were engaged in their usual occupation of catching fish at the different openings they had made.

CHAP. VI.

JOURNEY FROM SREDNE-KOLYMSK TO JAKUTSK.—A MAMMOTH'S BONE FOUND ON THE SHORE OF THE FROZEN OCEAN.—LUDICROUS INCIDENT WITH THE DOCTOR.—ARRIVAL AT JAKUTSK, AND DEPARTURE FROM THENCE FOR THE MAIA—BREAKING UP OF THE ICE IN THE RIVER ALDAN.—FLOATING ISLAND AND EXTRAORDINARY FLOOD.—RETURN TO JAKUTSK.

ON the 24th a part of the expedition was dispatched under the direction of Mr. Bakow, the master, whom I followed on horseback four days after, in company with the doctor, first surgeon, and mechanic. For the first 90 versts to Alaseisk, on the river Alaseja, we had to pass through woody marshy countries, and a number of lakes, three of which were not less than twenty versts in extent.

Alaseisk consists of a chapel and two isbens, inhabited by a merchant and a citizen, with their families. The neatness of their little dwellings, and the hospitable reception we experienced from them both, were matter of surprise and gratification for us. We had not been prepared for meeting happiness, content, and good humour in this rugged and barren clime. But nature has amply supplied their want of corn, by fish, game, and cattle. The lakes abound with geese, ducks, and other species of wild fowl in summer, and in winter their habitations are encompassed by immense flocks of woodcocks. The fish of this part are reckoned of superior quality, and the tchirens from the lake, are sent to all fortresses on the Kolyma, on account of their quality for keeping.

The river Alaseja flows very close by this hamlet, and falls immediately into the Frozen Ocean. The inhabitants informed us, that about a hundred versts distance from hence, the river had washed against its sandy bank the skeleton of a great animal, of which only one half was visible. It was apparently about the height of an elephant, in an upright direction, and in an entire state, still retaining its skin, and in some places, its hair. Mr. Merk had a strong desire to see this creature, but

was prevented from gratifying his wish by a heavy fall of snow that had just taken place, combined with the immense circuit it would have occasioned in our journey. The circumstance of a whole animal having been found on the coast of the Frozen Ocean, was a great curiosity, as we had hitherto never heard of any thing more than single bones and tusks, which are frequently collected, and form a branch of commerce for a company of Russian merchants, who call them by the name of mammons knocken (mammoth bones). They are found in the greatest quantities on the Laecherishi Islands in the Frozen Ocean, opposite to the mouth of the river Jana. A natural question here arises, which is entitled to consideration. How could these animals have inhabited a dreary climate, so ill suited to them, where the cold is intense?—Some are of opinion, that they are not natives of this place, having been brought hither from warmer countries in early ages for military purposes; others conjecture, that they were transported hither in the universal deluge: but both suppositions appear to me untenable. Such marshy, unfruitful, and mountainous countries as these are, could never have been witness to any warfare in which elephants or the like unwieldy animals were used; since the horses here, which are inured to every species of fatigue, are frequently unequal to the task of travelling in these uneven and slippery tracks. Nor is it more probable, that any deluge (particularly at the very remote period of the universal deluge), could have carried animals with it to the distance of 5000 versts, which now separate this country from a warmer climate. For my own part, I am rather inclined to attribute this phenomenon to some extraordinary change in the globe, and suppose, that the elements in this quarter of the world were once more congenial to those animals than at present; and with this suggestion I shall leave the matter to the decision of the naturalist.

The road as far as Saschiwersk led us through a succession of woods, marshes, and lakes; two of which latter were nearly thirty versts in circumference. These lakes are in general all connected together by brooks and rivulets which run into the Alaseja.

On the 10th of October, the cold became severe in the extreme, insomuch, that an old man in our company of above sixty, master of our baidars, who had not our youth and vigour of constitution, to shield him from the inclemency of the weather, sunk into despair, and resolved on meeting his fate in the woods. With the utmost difficulty I persuaded him to go on a little way farther, promising to leave him behind at the next habitation we came to. We very fortunately reached two isbens the next day.

at the mouth of the river Ujandina, inhabited by two citizens, with whom I left our old man, to his no small satisfaction.

The town of Saschiwersk, lying on the right bank of the Indigerka, is newly erected, having formerly been nothing more than a commissariat. Every thing therefore at present is in its infancy; but it has already its court of judicature and the necessary appurtenances. It consists of a church, and thirty wooden houses. The marshy hilly country in which it is situated, the barrenness of the soil, and the want of every necessary, render it a gloomy residence; and when to this is added the exorbitant price of provisions, it becomes insupportable. Whatever is not procured from Jakutsk at the proper season, is not to be had for money.

We continued three days at Saschiwersk, and were entertained by the counsellor Sampsonow, bailiff of the town, and by judge Banner, with so much cordiality and kindness, that I should charge myself with ingratitude were I to pass it over in silence. They furnished us likewise with provisions by the way, which we could not have procured at any rate without their aid, a favour not to be estimated by any pecuniary calculation.

Mr. Bamer informed us, that on a mountain situated opposite to the town on the other side the river, there were fine crystals. At the desire of Mr. Merk, therefore, we repaired thither, but found only some small ones, owing probably to the quantity of snow that had fallen. He shewed us, however, a remarkable breach in the declivity of this steep mountain. Immediately after our return from thence, Mr. Billings made his appearance at Saschiwersk, which retarded our departure for another day.

We set off on the 22d of October, and for the first days were continually crossing the brooks which run into the Indigerka, or passing over hilly countries covered with small larch-trees. On the 3th day, at the distance of 120 versts from the town, we got among lofty open mountains, running in a chain from south-east to north-west, and separating the rivers that fall into the Indigerka from those that flow into the Jana.

We now followed the course of the river Russkaja Rossocha, upwards, which intersects these lofty mountains, and is bordered on both sides by steep crags that have the appearance of walls—a majestic spectacle! the banks of the river seeming to be one perpetual street of lofty buildings.

The passage along this river is, however, never perfectly safe. In winter, violent storms or whirlwinds sometimes bury the travellers in snow; and in summer they are in danger of being drowned by a sudden swell of the water. These mountains are inhabited by foxes and wild sheep in abundance. One which we had the good fortune to kill, afforded us many pleasant meals: its flesh was peculiarly tender and delicious, or at least seemed so

to us. Twenty-five versts farther carried us beyond these mountains, over a rivulet to the tolerably large river Dogdo, down which we proceeded for four versts, almost to its junction with another river, from whence it derives the name of Tostach, and soon after falls into the Jana. Our road now led us along the Jana itself.

On the 30th we spent the first night, since our departure from the town, in a warm Jakntish jurt, after having passed eight very cold nights in the wood. Captain Billings overtook us this night.

On the 3d of November we stopped at the jurts of Barizlech, the last dwelling-place on our road, from whence we had to travel 400 versts as far as the river Aldan, on the same horses, through uninhabited tracks. We of course took fresh horses here.

Such a distant journey in weather that threatened to be daily more severe, was no pleasant reflection. The prospect of what we had still to endure, with which our former sufferings bore no comparison, inspired the most courageous of us with a species of fear. We proceeded towards the source of the Jana betwixt open mountains, where the cold received a double edge, from the strong and piercing current of wind which they occasioned. Our treble clothing of skins was of little avail against the cutting air, which seemed to congeal one's whole mass of blood. We were every half hour obliged to alight, and relax our stiffened limbs by walking. Our faces were perfectly disfigured by the cold, and we should probably have lost our noses and cheeks, if we had not hit upon the idea of making ourselves masks of bog, which were very serviceable, but at the same time no less inconvenient; for they stiffened and chafed us very seriously. Our breath was likewise instantly turned to ice, from the confinement. In this half ludicrous and half terrible disguise, we had more the appearance of scarecrows, than of human beings.

We chose the most shady places possible for our nocturnal stay, not forgetting, however, fodder for the horses, and dry wood for fuel. Our fire served both for warming us, and dressing our food. We never changed our clothes, and after supper, which was our principal meal in the day, we laid ourselves down in the cavities of snow. Happily for us all, not one of the party was assailed by illness; for in that dreadful extremity, death must have been the inevitable consequence.

In ten days we arrived at the source of the river Jana, and at an unusually lofty, open mountain, called the *Wercho-Janish*, or Upper Janish, from whence the rivers issue that run into the Frozen Ocean and the Aldan. The ascent of this mountain was much more gradual than its descent, which presented to our

view a hideously steep precipice that made us giddy, and obliged us to crawl on our hands and feet when we could not take an oblique direction.

Proceeding along the river Tnkulan, betwixt lofty mountains, we soon were cheered with the sight of poplars and larches. A few versts farther the scene was still more agreeably diversified by the evergreen of pines and firs, a rarity in nature which we had not enjoyed since our departure from Jakutsk; for neither of these trees is to be found from the Wercho-Janish chain of mountains to an immense extent northward, and from Jakutsk to Ochotsk eastward.

On the 19th of November we reached the river Aldan, and the first Jakutish jurts. On our entrance, a ludicrous scene ensued, which was not so perfectly agreeable to the poor doctor, who felt himself violently assailed in the face, without being able to discover through his mask the quarter from whence he received the assault. From the shrieks, he doubtless conjectured it to be a female, as it in reality was, who, in a species of frenzy, had flown at the doctor to tear off his mask. After we had forcibly released him from her rude embrace, she continued screaming until she fell exhausted and senseless to the ground. The Jakuts regard such fits as a species of disorder attributable to terror, to which their women, particularly those in years, are very much subject. The patients in this case, have the name of miratschkens. Miserable as our yurt was we enjoyed a night of sweet repose; under other circumstances, the stench alone from the cattle would have rendered this place insupportable, but now a warm shelter compensated for the want of every other convenience.

The distance from hence to Jakutsk was 150 versts; a comparatively agreeable journey for us, with a constant change of horses, and succession of villages. We accordingly reached our point of destination on the 24th, and experienced that heartfelt satisfaction at the termination of our toilsome and painful journey, which is conceivable by none who have not endured similar fatigues.

Mr. Billings had arrived there some days earlier, and Mr. Behring had been occupied, during the summer, with dispatching the materials for Ochotsk. They had prepared us warm rooms, which were altogether commodious, though without any elegance. The reception we met with from the inhabitants, and the commander Marklowski, contributed no less to render our stay in this city perfectly agreeable.

There was at this time in Jakutsk, an English traveller of the name of Ledyard, whose eccentric conduct excited considerable attention. He was known to Mr. Billings, from having

been with him in the capacity of a corporal in Captain Cook's last voyage; after which he is said to have been a colonel in the army of the United States during the war. He had formed the design of going round the world in the literal sense of the word, and for that purpose went to Petersburg, in order to begin with Russia; and on reaching the eastern boundaries of Asia, to wait for some vessel in which he might pass over to the English settlements. The absurdity of this enterprize is sufficiently manifest, from the circumstance of his intending to travel through a civilized country, without money or letters of recommendation; and afterwards to cross those boundless tracks on foot, thinly clad in winter, through which we had laboured with infinite difficulty on horseback, and in the warmest clothing. Where would he have found an opportunity of being conveyed over the water to the place of his destination? and supposing that he could have ingratiated himself with the savages, yet what endless mountains and deserts lie between Russia and the single inhabited coast in those regions! He was relieved from the necessity of walking as far as Jakutsk, by the civility of the Russian travellers, whom he met on the road, who carried him from place to place without any recompence. Here he met with still greater kindness, being admitted to the house and table of the commander, and receiving as a present from him a warm dress, more fitted for the cold season, which had commenced: and yet, the only return which Mr. Ledyard made for this extraordinary hospitality, was to calumniate and abuse every one; and finally challenge his benefactor for remonstrating with him on the impropriety of his behaviour. The arrival of Mr. Billings, at this moment, prevented any farther serious consequences from this affair, by his taking this man with him to Irkutsk on his departure for that place. The commander wrote a letter of accusation against him to the governor-general, in consequence of which he was taken into custody on his arrival at Irkutsk, and sent from thence to St. Petersburg, on the charge of disorderly conduct.

In Mr. Billings's absence I was commissioned to set off to the mouth of the river Maia, for the purpose of building there 50 cauoës. I therefore first dispatched the steersman with some of the people, and followed him as soon as I had collected the building materials. After crossing the Lena, we passed through woods, meadows, and lakes, in the course of which we occasionally met with scattered jurts: these were, however, quickly succeeded by bare mountainous countries.

On the fourth day of our journey, about 162 versts distance from Jakutsk, we came to the slobode Amginsk, which was remarkable for having been formerly the seat of the wogewodship,

or bailiwick of Aldan. The buildings of this slobode consist of a church, and 20 farm-houses, belonging to Russian settlers. As winter grain does not thrive here, the peasants only sow summer corn, which answers very well. A tschetwerick, or 360 pounds of barley, formerly cost only eight kopecks; but the neglected state of agriculture at present, has more than trebled this price. The peasants, allured by the easy lives of the Jakuts, attend to the breeding of cattle, in preference to the culture of corn; and attach themselves daily more and more to their barbarous neighbours, whose manners and even language they have adopted. Four versts from this slobode, is a village of 15 juts, inhabited by Russian peasants, who have laid aside their native language entirely. Five versts from the slobode, we crossed the Amga, flowing from the mountains on the right side, which it had washed away, and converted into huge precipices. On the left, were spacious fields, interspersed with little woods, or almost imperceptible ascents.

From the Amga, the road led by a little brook upwards, betwixt the mountains, on the plains of which we proceeded 15 versts to the river Notoia, which, winding through a succession of fields, groves, marshes, and lakes, is finally lost in the Aldan. Descending by this river, to the distance of 28 versts, we turned off to the right, and proceeded by an insignificant chain of mountains, up to the source of the river Mukua, which falls through a number of lakes and marshes into the Aldan. We pursued the course of this river downwards, which ran betwixt mountains that gradually diminished as they approached the Aldan, until they terminated in simple rising ground. The mountains were all covered with larches.

On the 28th I reached the haven of Elssmaia, where magazines and two barracks had been erected in the former expedition of commodore Behring. They stand on the left bank of the Aldan, opposite to the mouth of the river Maia, that flows into the former on the other side.

The distance from Jakutsk to here, is reckoned to be 360 versts. The northern latitude of this place, according to my observation, is $60^{\circ} 17'$, and the declination of the compass, 2° westward. Agreeably to my instructions, I begun immediately to collect wood for our canoes, and found a sufficient quantity of good materials on the banks of the Aldan. I preferred, however, the firs to the larches, on every ground.

The water commenced to rise on the 1st of May, and was 11 feet on the 9th, when the ice on the river Maia broke, and occasioned also a fracture in that of the Aldan, towards the lower part.

The swell increasing on the 13th to twelve feet, the whole of

the Aldan was released from its confinement. The ice drifted with extraordinary impetuosity, and in immense quantities, for three days; and in this universal agitation of ice and water, we perceived a floating island, about 70 fathoms in circumference, bearing with it a quantity of little birch shrubs, larch under-wood, and cut wood; a considerable number of little birds, hopping from tree to tree, increased the singularity of the scene. As this island passed very near our shore, we could distinguish very clearly that it consisted of turf, and probably of a fen torn away by the water, which, in its present congealed state, had no effect in dissolving it.

The rise of the water continued till the 17th, and concealed every thing for an immense distance from the eye, that was not above 38 feet in height. For seventy versts up the Aldan, by the way to Udsloi, the inundation was dreadful in the extreme, as we learned from a man who had been to Udsloi, for Captain Fomin. He assured us, that some places, 60 feet high, were buried under water.

The Jakuts, and all in that road, were material sufferers by this deluge; more than three hundred pack-horses, with a number of other things, being lost in the water. Captain Fomin, of the navy, who was just come from Petersburg with a special commission, experienced the loss of all his provisions.

On the fall of the water, we caught pike and sturgeon of different kinds with nets; perch and plotwen (*Cyprinus idus*) with the rod. The latter is a very scaly fish, weighing a pound at the utmost. Its head and fins are very large; its cirri close by its eyes, which have a broad rim round them; its whole body is covered with thick scales; its back round and dark green, but the sides and belly silver-coloured. Its pectoral, dorsal, and anal fins are dark; its lateral ones purple. It has an extraordinary quantity of spine, is found in pure sweet waters, and is very prolific and cheap.

On the 28th of May, the canoes being finished, Mr. Fomin proceeded up the Maia with two of them. A week after, Captain Behring came with his people to me, and taking the rest of the canoes, went up the river, in order to convey to Judomskoi-Krest the baggage which had been left the preceding year on the bank of the Judoma. Having consigned the crew, hitherto under my orders, to Mr. Behring, I returned to Jakutsk, in order to observe the state of the roads. I found them totally ruined by the rain and floods; and all the bridges which had been erected over the smaller rivers carried away.

I arrived on the 12th of June at Jakutsk, three days later than our commander. I informed him of the state of the roads, and pointed out to him the repairs which I conceived necessary.

As our baggage was already at Jakutsk, we hastened to send the order of the magistrate to the Jakutish Knasks on the Ainga, to have the roads mended without delay.

CHAP. VII.

TRANSPORT OF THE BAGGAGE TO JUDONSKOI-KREST.—
DIFFICULTIES ON THE PASSAGE.—RIVER-TUNGUSIANS.
—GLUTTONY OF THE JAKUTS.—ARRIVAL AT OCHOTSK.

THE conveyance of the baggage to Judonskoi-krest being confided to me, I proceeded on the 14th of July to Usmaiash Pristan, where I found a vast quantity of stores, which had been transported upon telegas, or four-wheeled carriages, drawn by oxen. The next day I disposed all the luggage in 17 canoes, and attended them myself down the river. Each canoe held 70 poods, and the whole burthen, of which our ordnance and anchors formed the principal part, amounted to 1500 poods. Each canoe drew three feet of water, and the whole was dragged along by 120 men, who were principally Jakuts, hired for the purpose.

We set off at midnight from the above-mentioned place, and crossing the Aldan, came to the mouth of the Maia, which is 300 fathoms broad, and nine feet deep in the middle. But we soon found places where the river in its whole breadth is not above five feet deep. The water was then likewise two foot higher than ordinary.

At first the stream was so gentle as to admit of our rowing, but the tide gradually gained strength as we went on farther. Both sides were covered with small larch-trees, and occasionally with shrubs of different kinds. The right bank is so low, as to be continually overflowed; but the left bank is in some parts 20, in others 60 and 80 toises high. It is also very rocky in many places. Farther on, the mountains of the left bank gradually decline so low as to leave the shore under water; while on the other hand, the right side begins to rise, and is continued by a rocky declivity for some distance.

Here we found some River-Tungusians, so called from their having no reindeer, and paddling incessantly about the river in their birch canoes, which serve at the same time for their habitations. These canoes are very small, and much in use among the Jakuts, in lakes and rivers. They are composed of twigs, plaited round long poles, which answer the purpose of ribs, and are altogether covered with the bark of the birch tree. The cavities are filled up with a sort of cement, which the Jakuts extract from boiled cream. These people, who live entirely on

fish, are denominated Tungusians, but are in reality of Jakutish extraction; and very rarely speak Tungusian. I took one of them as my guide, to tell me the names of every river, cliff, or island we might pass.

After we had gone 36 versts, on our way to the Judoma, the left shore began again to be mountainous, and we found by the river Ilshikit, a rocky declivity called Elslank, about 60 toises in height; where we discovered for the first time lofty firs among the larch trees.

On the 9th day of our journey, we turned to the left from the river Maia up the Judoma, the breadth of which was 150 fathoms at the mouth. At a short distance from hence, it is only three feet deep, and has a very gravelly bottom. The stream is at the same time so strong, that thirty men could not tow a single canoe along, without the greatest difficulty. Such places in rivers have the name of Schewera.

We were obliged to stop about a verst and a half from the mouth of the river, to repair a canoe which had struck upon a stone. We kept close to the right shore, which was very long, and covered with all sorts of bushes, among which we found the currant and white vine; the latter beautiful shrub has the name of dikuschac in Siberia. The opposite shore had a large rock in one place, called Sourdshag.

Twenty-four versts farther, we had to drag up a schewera with still greater difficulty. The tow to one of the canoes breaking, and unfortunately just above the place where the girdle of a Jakut was tied, he was thrown by a jerk into the water, out of the reach of all assistance.

We experienced the inconvenience of shallow water for some time after, and as soon as this evil was removed, it was succeeded by one equally serious, namely, the sickness of our men. The greater part of our labourers had such bad feet, that I almost despaired of reaching Judomskoi-krest this summer. Their disorder consisted in a swelling of the toes and heels, and a chapping of the hands. A regular application of tar and grease was found to be of immediate efficacy. The principal cause of this evil, was the sharpness of the water in the Judoma, in which the men were obliged to be continually wading. I observed, however, that the Kosaks were not so seriously affected in this way, as the Jakuts, and particularly those who had consumed their portion of fat and butter, and were now confined to their burduck.

This failure in the stock of their provisions originated with the intemperance of the Jakuts, who seized every opportunity that offered for devouring their allowance as long as it lasted. We no sooner stopped to rest, or spend the night, than they had

their kettle on the fire, and did not leave it until we pursued our journey. They spent the intervals of rest in eating; and practised petty thefts on each other, when their own stock was exhausted. Thus they passed the whole night without sleep, and were drowsy throughout the next day.

It might naturally be expected, for such extraordinary voracity to be attended with ill consequences; and yet this was by no means the case. What they made a practice of devouring at one meal, would have killed almost any other person; but on them it had no visible effect. Their stomachs seemed to be of the ostrich kind, well fitted for the task of perpetual digestion.

One of our men had an allowance of four poods of butter and fat, (above 100 English pounds) and two poods of rye-flour, an ample provision for the heartiest labourer; and yet a fortnight had not elapsed, before he began to complain of having nothing to eat. I could not credit what he said, until the other Jakuts informed me, to my infinite astonishment, that this man occasionally consumed at home, in the space of 24 hours, the hind-quarter of a large ox, and half a pood of fat, with a proportionate quantity of melted butter for his drink. But the appearance of the man did not bear them out in their assertions; for he was small of stature, and very meagre. Having therefore a mind to make the trial of his gormandizing powers, I had a thick porridge of rice boiled with three pounds of butter, weighing together 28 pounds. Although the glutton had already breakfasted, yet he sat down with great eagerness, and, to my perfect amazement, consumed the whole without stirring from the spot. The extension of his stomach betrayed indeed a more than ordinary fullness, but otherwise, he discovered not the slightest symptom of having been injured or molested by it; and would in fact have been prepared for the renewal of his gluttony the next day. I advised our comorant, however, to practise a little forbearance in future, and portion out the allowance given him for the time appointed. He now abstained from making himself any more porridge, and mixing his flour alone with cold water, ate it in that raw state, that he might be the sooner satisfied.

The banks of the river continued, as before, to be partly so low as to admit the water over them, and partly mountainous, according as the river itself wound through a high or low country. The wood consisted principally of larches, with here and there of poplars, alders, and others. For the distance of 250 versts both the banks were enclosed by, or ran parallel with mountains, from whence this track is called Stscheki, (cheeks). On the 7th of August the water rose, within 24 hours so high as to break its bounds, and by the violence of its stream, brought a quantity of wood into the river. I should conclude from this

extraordinary swell, that there must have been very heavy rains at the source of the river. We were compelled to stay three days in one place, to wait for the fall of the water. I fixed the latitude of this place at $59^{\circ} 23'$.

On the 29th of August we were obliged to stem the tide below a waterfall, which extended two fathoms, and in which both banks were filled with pointed projecting stones. It cost us no small trouble to drag our canoes against the stream betwixt these stones. In the middle of the river, we could see nothing but foaming and dashing waves, instead of stones. Two versts farther brought us to the proper cascade, which falls perpendicularly from a height of six feet. It does not extend over the whole bed of the river, but only from the right shore to a little stony island in the middle. But although there was no waterfall on the left side, where we were, yet the stream was so powerful, and the water so shallow, that we were under the necessity of lightening our canoes. Beyond this cascade the river was clothed with islands, and after running, as it were, in a channel betwixt mountains, it was divided into a number of arms. The number of scheweras and dry places now increasing, we could not tow the canoes any longer, but were obliged to push them forward with our hands. To complete our misfortune, the cold weather now commenced. The morning frosts chilled the water to such a degree, that no one could endure to stand in it for any length of time. The people, particularly the Jakuts, grew impatient and rebellious, obstinately refusing to labour any more. Finding that neither threats nor intreaties were of any avail, I was obliged to try the power of example. I waded therefore myself for 25 versts through the water, and thus succeeded in bringing us out of this difficulty.

All these arms are again united at the distance of seven versts from Judomskoi-krest. Here my steersman had the misfortune of oversetting one of the canoes in towing round the point of an island, by which a part of the lading was lost.

On the 27th we arrived safe at our journey's end, and unloading our stores immediately into the magazines, I dismissed the labouring Jakuts, that they might return home in the empty canoes. The latitude of this place, according to my observation, was $59^{\circ} 53'$.

As there were no horses here for conveying our goods, I was obliged to leave them in the care of a Kosak, and proceed, with the few horses we could get, towards Ochotsk.

On the 31st of October, we passed two isbens, and magazines, called the faehrbaute (ferry-dock) of Elrak, which were erected on the former expedition of Behring; for here the ferries and canoes were built that served for carrying the provisions

down the river Elrak, which were afterwards transported to Ochotsk in larger craft. But now the water in the Elrak was much too shallow to admit of any navigation with the smallest canoes, even when empty. Nor would it ever be practicable at any other time than in the spring, when there is an extraordinary swell of the water. All the rivers in these parts issue from the mountains, and are in connection with springs and rivulets that have also the same source, by which they receive extraordinary supplies of water, that are with equal rapidity carried off through other channels.

Keeping along the right bank of the river Elrak, we continually observed poplars, birches, and every sort of shrub intermixed with the larches, which cover its islands and shores. The former serve as a haunt for the woodcocks, which feast here, in great numbers, on the berries in this season, which render their flesh very delicious. In the spring they lose their fine flavour, and contract both a taste and smell from the buds of the larches, which is their only nutriment.

Eighty versts from the ferry-docks, we had to cross the Elrak, and turn off to the left over hills which brought us to the Jakutish place called Meta, on the Ochota. The remaining part of our journey, which was 70 versts, we went in birch canoes down the Ochota, with an immensely rapid stream, in six hours.

Mr. Billings staid but ten days at Ochotsk, from whence he returned to Jakutsk. Our luggage, which had been left at Judomskoi-krest, was brought here in nartes, drawn by dogs, and we spent the remainder of the winter in ship-building.

At the commencement of spring, I surveyed the mouths of the Ochota and Kuchtui, and sketched a plan of the city Ochotsk, the northern latitude of which I fixed at $59^{\circ} 18'$. The easterly inclination of the compass was $0^{\circ} 40'$.

CHAP. VIII.

VOYAGE FROM OCHOTSK TO THE RIVER ULKAN.—DREADFUL STORM.—THE ISLAND OF NANSEKAN.—THE BAY OF ST. THEODOR.—PASSAGE FROM ULKAN TO ALDOMA.—OBSERVATIONS ON THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A HARBOUR ON THE ALDOMA.—ON THE RIVER AMUR.—RETURN TO OCHOTSK BY THE ULKAN.

ON the return of spring I proceeded, agreeably to my commission, to survey the south-western shore of the Ochota, as far as the river Ulkan. My wooden baidar, which was about 25 feet in length, was finished in April, but the ice prevented me

from setting out before the 31st of May. The crew consisted of ten men, and two subalterns.

The first day we had both wind and tide against us. The following day we passed the river Ulrak, which we could not enter on account of the boisterous weather, and rapidity of the stream. Not far beyond the Ulrak, two rivers of no remarkable magnitude, namely, the Tschitschikonka and the Chomot, fall into the sea. They both take their source from the Urakish mountains, at the distance of 30 versts.

We were prevented by the storm for two days, from approaching the shore. On the third we were carried with the stream, to the entrance of the united brooks Mariakanka and Andlytscha, which flow about 40 versts from the adjacent mountains. Between the Mariakanka and the Chomot, is a lake ten versts long and one and a half broad, running in a parallel line with the sea.

Notwithstanding the violence of the stream with which we had to contend, we managed to enter the river Ulga the next morning, which is about 75 fathoms broad. We observed no sand-banks at its entrance, and no shoals where the water was not two feet in depth. On the right side of the river is a bay, which extends from thence seven versts close by the sea, and is about half a verst broad. The left bank runs near the brook Elgan, which occupies nearly 150 versts in extent of country, and flows also for seven versts close by the sea. It receives the addition of several other smaller brooks.

The river Ulga springs from the same mountain as separates the Ulkan from the Maia. Two hundred versts from its mouth, it has a cataract of such an extraordinary height and steepness, as to prevent any canoe from passing by it. According to the assertion of the Tungusians, this river affords a great quantity of timber, at a considerable distance higher up.

We were detained here a whole day by bad weather, in which we had a succession of rain and snow. The surrounding mountains were entirely covered with the latter.

The shore, from Ochotsk to this place, is remarkably low; but rises at the distance of 15 versts by a chain of mountains, that gradually approach the river as you proceed farther, and form several rocky declivities. In this country we found three jurts of Reindeer Tungusians, who were settled here, for the purpose of catching bears, which are allured by the sea-weed that is thrown up, to frequent this shore in vast herds. They are very quiet, and even afraid of men, who kill them without any difficulty.

The next day we passed the river Guntshi, which is eleven fathoms broad at its mouth, and has its source in the southwestern chain of mountains. The two rivers, Nandakan and

Elba, flow into it, the one from the right, and the other from the left. Among the stupendous crags which extend along this river was one called Chanandga, which projected at the height of 100 fathoms into the water, and attracted our attention from the number of sea-lions which were lying on the stones under the declivity. The summit of this rock is a haunt for birds of various species, as the tschaika or mew, the urila or *Pelaeanus iridaceus*, ara, alca torda or penguin, toporka or *Alca artica*, and the kamenuschka, *Anas histrionica*, or fenduck.

Near this promontory we were overtaken by a violent storm, which dashed up the waves mountains high in its violent contention with the opposing tide, and threatened every moment to swallow up our little bark; but the wind being favourable, the baidar sailed with such immense rapidity, as to escape every overwhelming billow, and brought us in a short time to a less dangerous spot: but on approaching the shore, betwixt the rocky precipices, our baidar received a violent shock, by which it was thrown on its side, and many of us compelled to wade through the water to the shore for our own safety.

While we were drying our clothes and provisions, the storm subsided, and enabled us to pursue our course, which led us ^{su}past the steep mountain Enkan, that projects into the sea. At its extremity there was a stone pillar, about seven fathoms distant, which was nearly the height of the mountain itself, and had the appearance of a tower. Seven versts beyond this mountain the brook Kékia falls into the sea, after having received two other rivulets.

Shortly after we discovered on a small island, opposite to the cliff Odshan, four juts of Reindeer Tungusians, who are settled here for the purpose of hunting bears on the sea-shore, and wild sheep on the mountains. In the summer they collect vast quantities of eggs from the sea-birds that frequent this coast, and nest in the hollows of the rock.

The next day we reached the river Ulkan, which was appointed by Captain Billings as our place of rendezvous. The breadth of this river at its mouth is nine fathoms, and its depth at low water, three feet; but farther on, only a foot and a half. The latitude of this place is $57^{\circ} 0'$, the elevation of the tide, six or seven feet, and at the new moon, nine or ten feet.

I was induced, from the short distance of the river Aldoma, and from what I had heard of it, to embrace this moment of leisure to pay it a visit, and accordingly set off on the 15th of June. We arrived towards noon at the Aldomish bay, which takes its name from the above river, with which it combines towards the west. The greater part of this bay is dry at low water, and the rest is not above $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms.

The Aldoma has two sources, namely on the Jablonish mountains, and on those from whence the Ulkan springs. At its mouth we found three jurts of Tungusians, who subsist alone on fish, which are similar to those at Ochotsk. The Reindeer Tungusians come also here to fish at the close of June.

Although they assured me that the banks of the Aldoma produced no timber, yet I observed among the floating wood some pieces four yards in thickness, and twelve or fourteen in length.

During my stay in the Uldoma, I had the unexpected pleasure of meeting with Mr. Fomin, who was just come from the Uda. Whoever has experienced the agreeable surprise of meeting a friend or acquaintance in a savage and desert quarter of the globe, will fully enter into our feelings on this occasion.

Mr. Fomin was commissioned to plan a harbour on the Uda, but its entrance being too shallow, and otherwise inconvenient for the reception of vessels, he had surveyed the whole of the Uda as far as the Chinese frontiers to the east, and the Aldoma to the north-east, but found nothing worthy of his attention, except a bay in the latter river, which was perfectly sheltered on all sides, except towards the south. Besides these two rivers, there is only the famous Amur, which after passing through 400 versts of the Chinese territory, falls into this sea.

This river formerly belonged to Russia, and between the years 1664 and 1689, attracted the Kosaks and hunters from the different nations in the Russian dominions, to its borders. Cities, fortresses, and villages, were built, and agriculture introduced. The land is fruitful, and the water abounds in fish; the inhabitants therefore lived in opulence, and would in time have converted this tract of country into the most flourishing part of Russia, if the envy and jealousy of the Chinese had not been roused against these new settlers, to impede their farther establishment. They sent a considerable force for the purpose of destroying their cities, and although they met with a stout resistance, yet by a treaty concluded between them and the Russians, the latter retained only the upper part of the Amur, under the name of the rivers Schilka and Arguka, the confluence of which forms the new frontier. All beyond this point was ceded to the Chinese, and the Russian city Abisin, together with the Argunsk on the southern side of the Arguma, and adjacent places, were destroyed. The city of Neretchinsk only was saved, and afterwards another fortress of the same name was built, on the north side of the Arguma.

The Chinese have not derived the smallest advantage from this possession of the river, which, by remaining in the hands of the

Russians, would have made them masters of the Eastern Ocean, and secured to them an extensive trade in those seas.

Having sent our people forward with the baidar, I staid two days longer with Mr. Fomin, in order to accompany him on reindeer to the Ulkan, where he arrived after a journey of 30 vèrsts in six hours, and found a tent erected for our reception. Mr. Fomin did me the kindness of stopping with me two days, at the end of which he set off again for the Alduma.

The interval of waiting for our commander, was employed by the men in the pursuit of sea-lions near the promontory of Enkan, two of which they succeeded in shooting, after two days chase. They are commonly shot as they lie extended on the rock, and at so short a distance, that they may be hit on the crown or temples, the only two parts in which they are to be mortally wounded. On receiving a wound in any other place, they spring into the water, and sink to the bottom the instant they die. The flesh of these two animals, which weighed nearly 80 poods, was a sufficient load for my whole baidar; the men ate of it with much avidity, and esteemed it a great luxury, although I did not find it equally delicious. The paws, marrow, and kidneys, indeed, were free from any offensive smell, and had a tolerable flavour.

In consequence of a counter order from Captain Billings, not to wait for him here, but to return to Ochotsk, I set off from this place on the 27th of June. In my way thither I passed the mouth of the river Ulga, and entered the Urak. The breadth of this river is 70 fathoms at its mouth; its depth, at the fall of the water, five or six feet, and higher up, two feet, or a foot and a half. Three years ago the Urak fell into the sea farther towards the west; but the small neck of land, which separated it from the sea, being washed away by a flood, it forsook its former mouth, and took this new course.

The bank of the Urak is inhabited by some Jakuts, who have removed from Jakutsk. The merchant Ichelechow has also erected some barracks here, and a dock-yard, in which he built three vessels.

On the 7th of July, we arrived at the mouth of the Ochota, where we were received by almost all the inhabitants of the city. Our commander, and the rest of the expedition, were at Ochotsk. I presented him with my journal and map of my late excursion, and received the command of the ship *Slawa Rossii* (the Fame of Russia) which was already launched and equipped. The length of its deck was 86 feet 6 inches; its depth, 9 feet 6 inches; and its breadth, twenty feet eight inches. The second vessel, which was 5½ feet smaller than the former, and received the name of the *Dobroe Namerenie*, was launched the next

day. Both vessels were laid at anchor in Ochota, opposite the town, and the utmost exertions possible used to fit them out complete for sailing; but this was attended with infinite difficulty for want of proper hands to execute the business. The Kosaks, who had been sent us instead of sailors from all parts of Siberia, were not only total strangers to the sea, but to every thing belonging to a vessel; and were not very expert in learning this new calling. Nor did we derive much greater assistance from the sailors in the haven of Ochota, who were altogether unused to the equipment of vessels like ours.

CHAP. IX.

THE TWO VESSELS GO INTO THE ROADS.—DESTRUCTION OF THE DOBROE NAMERENIE. — SAILING OUT OF THE OCHOTSK ROAD.—DISCOVERY OF THE ISLAND JONAS.—NAVIGATION BETWIXT THE KURILIAN ISLANDS.—ARRIVAL AT THE BAY OF AWATSKA.—ENTRANCE INTO THE HARBOUR OF PETROPAULOWSK.

THE ship *Slawa Rossii* was, notwithstanding every impediment, completely equipped in August; but we could not load her deeper than $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, as there are many sand-banks at the mouth of the Ochota, which are not above nine feet deep. These sand-banks, which we were obliged to pass, extended a verst and a half, and although we could have easily effected this in half an hour with a good wind and full sails, yet we were obliged to tow the ship along the shore for some days, and to stop twice a day, about eleven o'clock, by the shallow places. Not to mention that our towing was sometimes of no avail, when the bottom was extremely uneven, and the tide very strong.

After we had succeeded in getting the vessel over the sands, we turned off from the shore of the river Kuchtin, to the other side of the two united rivers, where we found it a suitable depth.

We threw out all our anchors for the sake of security, and thus, for two days, remained quiet; but on the third, as the tide fell, the stream was so violent as to tear the vessel from its anchors, although it was fastened by a cable to the shore. We were accordingly obliged to remain 12 hours lying on a shoal, from which we were released by the return of the tide on the following day, and cast anchor against the side of the river.

On the 27th of August, this vessel went out, with a favourable wind, into the roads, and anchored four versts from the shore, in six fathoms. The captain went on land, consigning the management of the landing, and every thing else, to my care.

In the mean time, the final equipment of the Dobroe Name-renie being completed, it set sail from the city to the mouth of the river, where, on the 8th of September, we witnessed the beginning and end of its navigation. As we were on the point of carrying her out of the river, the wind, which had filled our sails with a favourable gale, suddenly dropped, and was succeeded by an extraordinary swell of the sea, which drove a-head of us, and occasioned a horrible reeling of the vessel. It scarcely moved forwards, and was with difficulty kept off a sand-bank, against which it was perpetually forced by the towering billows. Towards eleven o'clock, the beating of the waves increased, and the shallops, with which the vessel was towed on, being thrown into disorder, were thus rendered disserviceable. The next instant the ship lay on its beam ends, fast in a sand-bank. It was now enveloped in a furious vortex of billows, that dashed with indescribable vehemence and velocity from side to side, and carried away all its masts. In this distress it was impossible to afford any assistance. The inhabitants of the town, who had flocked to the shore, were obliged to stand as idle spectators. The raging of the waves equally prevented any one from rowing up to the vessel, as it did the crew from getting on land. The one now beheld the dreadful spectacle with heartfelt compassion, and the other awaited their inevitable fate in despair. With every wave that followed in rapid succession, the ship was heaved backward or forward with such violence, as to shake the men from the cable on which they hung. Some were even hurled into the water, while others were threatened with being dashed to pieces by the broken masts. In this dreadful and pitiable condition they were obliged to spend four hours, until the return of the ebb, which appeased the fury of the waters. We immediately cleared the ship of the cargo and provisions, and made every endeavour to drag it to the shore, but were twice prevented by the tide setting in more impetuously than before. Finding therefore, on examination, that the vessel was too much damaged to admit of repair, Mr. Billings, and the officers, unanimously resolved on having it burnt, in order, at any rate, to preserve the iron. On the evening of the 9th, therefore, we had the mortification of seeing our vessel, the Dobroe Name-renie, which had cost us so much pains, anxiety, and money, consumed by the flames.

The agitation of the water continued for three days, particularly at the mouth of the river, where the surge beat with such vehemence against the breakers, as to prevent our getting on land. I now expected that a high wind would have succeeded from the quarter where the sea had been so tumultuous: but, on the contrary, it continued a perfect calm for eight days, from

whence we naturally concluded, that the storm had remained at a distance. During the whole of this time we received all sorts of utensils and materials from the wreck.

On the 16th the sea was again very boisterous, and our vessel dragged her anchor very much. The captain, Mr. Hall, and myself, who were on land, passed a very uneasy night, as we knew the river to have a bad bottom, consisting of pebbles, and apprehended that our vessel might experience a similar fate with many transports which had been driven aground.

In the year 1787, we were witness to a case of this kind here, with a ship arrived from Inshiga, which was unable to enter the river at low water, and anchored off the reef. The wind rising, and the sea becoming rough, the ship was driven into a shoal, and struck on the shore.

We happily escaped this danger, and embraced the first favourable wind on the 20th to put to sea, in order to sail to Kamtschatka by the way of the Kurilian islands, and spend the winter in the harbour of the Petropanlowsk. The favourable wind lasted but twenty-four hours, and was succeeded by a squall, which disturbed the sea so much that we were obliged to hawl in all the sails, except the mizen-sail, and leave the ship to the mercy of the waves.

The greater part of the people who were with us had never been to sea, and were of course continually sick from the extraordinary rocking of the vessel, which was not a little increased by the force of their imaginations; for they fancied, that every wave, which towered mountains high towards our vessel, would assuredly swallow them. Some of the sailors from Ochotsk, who had been at sea before, whispered to the others, that the storm arose from the eagle which Captain Billings had caught alive and taken with him. They accordingly entreated that it might have its liberty, and although this request was not complied with, yet the wind dropped in two days, and we steered with a favourable gale and full sails S. E. directly towards the second Kurilian island.

Although we had no idea of a new discovery in this well known sea, through which many vessels pass from Ochotsk to Kamtschatka, yet we sent a person to the top-mast to take a survey of the country around, who called to us at ten o'clock in the morning, that he discovered land. We assured ourselves of the reality by means of our telescopes, and in order to remove every possible doubt, directed our course that way. After an hour's sailing, we stood in near enough to distinguish a little island, about half a mile in extent, and elevated more than a hundred fathoms above the water. It appeared to be encompassed on

all sides with lofty perpendicular rocks and cliffs, concealed under the water, and resembled a haystack at a distance.

This island, hitherto unknown, must have been very dangerous at night and in misty weather for the navigators of this ocean; and, if I conjecture rightly, the vessel which went in the September of the preceding year from Ochotsk to Kamtschatka, and was never heard of after, was lost on this shore: for a boisterous wind and a thick mist arose on the third day from the south-east, which drove the ship perhaps this way, and dashed it on the rock. Such an accident might indeed have happened on the shores of the continent or the Kurilian islands, but in that case it must have been discovered. We gave this land the name of Jonas, in honour of the saint whose feast was commemorated on this day. The latitude of this place, by my observation, was $56^{\circ} 53'$; the depth 37 fathoms, and the bottom gravelly. The island was then fifteen miles towards the south-west of our course.

While lying in the roads I observed that the sea-birds, and particularly the mewes, flew every evening from the shore to the sea southward, and returned every morning early. From whence it is fair to conclude, that they staid for the night on the island of Jonas, or some other rocky islets lying still nearer, where they find a secure retirement, free from every molestation.

The wind continuing fair, we came in sight of the Alaid, the first of the Kurilian islands, on the twenty-seventh, lying rather sideways, and, on that account, not properly belonging to the cluster. It consists of a single mountain, whose hoary head, eternally covered with snow, is concealed in the clouds. To us it had the appearance of a sugar-loaf, but from a south-east direction it seemed to extend itself more into a flat surface. It is said to smoke occasionally. Beyond the Alaid, the second Kurilian island breaks forth from its cloud of mist.

Unacquainted as we were with this sea, we found it prudent to remove towards night from land islands, and on the dawn of day, approached the third Kurilian island, Schirinki, the left shore of which we passed towards noon. It is about two miles in extent, and encompassed with steep rocks, consisting of tall cliffs, covered with moss. From these we were visited by a number of urilas. They all flew alternately, one after the other, very close round our ship, not less than three times, as if they would eye us with proper attention; after which they returned to their nests. This curious bird is said to be a certain indication in a storm, that land is not far off, because it never goes any distance from the shore.

From the third island we steered by the fourth, the Mamrish, which is mountainous and rocky, into the straight between the

second and fifth, which is called Quekotan. In the middle of this straight we were becalmed towards noon. We heaved the lead, but found no bottom. Its breadth, which is 27 miles, makes it one of the largest, and least dangerous among the Kurilian islands. In addition to which, it has no swampy places, and the tide is less impetuous here than at the others.

The third and fourth Kurilian islands have neither wood nor inhabitants, but the second and fifth yield an inconsiderable number of birch-shrubs, and are thinly inhabited by a people, who, in appearance, and mode of living, resemble the Kaintschadales more than the southern Kurilians. They have received the name of hairy Kurilians, from the long beards by which they are distinguished. The northern Kurilians derive their origin, if we may judge by the resemblance, from the Kamtschadales; but from whence these hairy ones are derived, it is difficult to decide: for scarcely any people in this quarter, either Chinese, Japanese, or, in fact, any northern nation on the shores of Asia, have any beard; except the Gilaks, living near the mouth of the Amur.

The 28th of September was the finest day since our departure from Ochotsk. The sun shone till the very evening, with a warmth little inferior to that in the middle of summer. After the cold weather, which we had hitherto had for a constancy, it now seemed as if we were transported all at once from the frigid to the torrid zone, although we were only ten degrees more to the south. The mildness of the air, the aspect of the shore, and the glittering surface of the muffled ocean, all inspired us with a vivacity, to which we had long been strangers. During this day we were all constantly on deck, but, usually, no one would leave the cabin who was not on duty.

On the first of October, we descried the mountainous shore of Kamtschatka, by which we pushed our course, until we arrived off the haven of Petropaulowsk. At a distance we perceived five lofty and distinct mountains, one of which is called Wilnit-Schinskaja, and has the bay of Awatska to the right; three others lie together on the right hand, about 50 versts from the sea; of these the western, which is called Streloschnaia, has a loftier and more peaked summit than the others. The Awatskinskaia, otherwise called Gonelaia, which lies adjacent to it, is volcanic, and emits fire; the third is nameless, and lower than the two others. The last, denominated Schupanowna, lies more northerly, and more remote than the rest: it appears also at a distance to be more level. Although these mountains are situated far inland, yet, on account of their extraordinary height, they are very conspicuous even above the shore, which is rather elevated. A very exact drawing of this

view is to be found in Cook's voyage, which differs from mine only from the slight difference of position.

At the entrance of the bay of Awatska, we passed a light-house, erected on a lofty rocky prominence, on the left of which was an insular mountain of stone, called Staritschkow, after the name of a bird that frequents it in great abundance. The staritschkow is a bird about the size of a pigeon, with a bluish bill, and small feathers, of a bristly kind; its head is of a purple colour, having a circle of white feathers in the middle, which are thinner and longer than the rest. Its neck is black above, with white spots underneath. Its body is white, the short large feathers of its wings blackish, and the rest blue; its sides and tail black; its feet red, and thickly indigited with a web between each, and its claws black. On the little islands of Kamtschatka they are found in vast numbers, and are caught by the Kamtschadales with great facility. Besides this bird, there are also sea-parrots, mews, and urilas, the latter of which paid us a visit of curiosity as before, and then disappeared.

The entrance of the bay by the light-house, has 13 fathoms water, and a sandy bottom. The banks on both sides are peaked and stony, having occasionally windings, in and out. Not far beyond the light-house, stand three lofty isolated rocks in the form of pillars, close by each other; on which account they are denominated the *Three Ribbons*. Very near these pillars is a little creek called *the Saline*, from the salt-works which exist on its banks. On one side of the creek, lies a little stony island, called the *Traitor's Island*, from its having been the place of concealment for the ringleaders of the Kamtschadale insurrection against the Russians. On the other side is a lofty rock, called the *Grandmother's Rock*.

The entrance into the bay extends two leagues beyond these, and terminates with the commencement of the bay itself, which is 26 leagues in extent, and loses itself in three creeks, running parallel with each other: one of which is called Tarjinskoi, the second Rakowoi, and the third forms the harbour of Petropaulowsk, which was the object of our destination. It lies more to the north of the entrance, in the middle of which is a sand-bank, where the depth of the water is scarcely $1\frac{1}{2}$ fathom. The creek itself is from six to fifteen fathoms deep, and affords a good anchorage every where in its muddy bottom. The shore and surrounding country are mountainous, except towards the north-west, where there are some plains and low-lands. From this side also, flow the rivers Awatska and Paratunka, into the creek.

Towards evening we came to anchor near the harbour of Petropaulowsk, which is above a verst in circumference. On the

west side, it is sheltered by a mountainous narrow peninsula, and on the south side, by a small gut of land, consisting of pebbles, and called Koschka. Between that peninsula, and Koschka, one must run into the harbour. The breadth of this straight is 40, and the depth, from seven to nine fathoms. The bottom is muddy.

On the Koschka there are eight dwelling-houses, interspersed with several buloganen; or log-houses, and on the north shore of the haven are four, together with a wooden building for an hospital, and the store-houses built during the expedition of Commodore Behring, which are still in good condition. The number of the inhabitants is limited to eleven Kamtschadales, one ensign from the army, and 23 Kosaks. The country around the haven is mountainous, but the north and east sides have sufficient level ground for 300 houses.

CHAP. X.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR WINTERING IN PETROPAULOWSK.
—REMARKS ON THE FISHERY, AND THE CATTLE OF
KAMTSCHATKA.—JOURNEY WITH DOGS TO THE FOR-
TRESS OF BOLSCHERESK.—KAMTSCHADALE DANCE.—
PRESENT CONDITION OF THE KAMTSCHADALES.

WE entered the haven of Petropaulowsk on the 5th of October, and moored our vessel by the magazines, in which all our stores and provisions were deposited. We were distributed in the dwellings, as well as the smallness of the place would admit. Mr. Billings took possession of the imperial building, which was spacious and commodious. Lieutenant Hall, Bakow, and I, took up our lodgings at no great distance, in a Kosak's house; but it was so narrow, as to hold little more than our hammocks at night. The height was proportionable to the size; for we could scarcely stand upright without striking our heads against the ceiling. The doctor and the surgeon resided in an adjoining house, and the others were accommodated on the Koschka.

For the relief of the inhabitants, we resolved on building a large joint, a bathing-room, and a forge, on the north side of the haven. The only timber we could find for this purpose was birch, which grows very abundantly in the surrounding country. Our undertaking, which was commenced and executed in a short time, was greatly favoured by the weather, that remained very warm to the first of November. We had hitherto seen no snow, but what had been lying on the mountains.

The shore, indeed, had lost the enchanting verdure of spring

and summer, and the trees were entirely stript of their leaves; but there were some cedar or birch shrubs still remaining in the hollow windings of the mountains, that afforded us many agreeable walks, until the snow fell so heavily as to block up our passage. We had now only one narrow path in the declivity towards the Koschka, and another between the mountains towards a lake situated 300 furlongs to the north of our dwelling-place. Near this latter path, on the right hand bank of a rivulet running into the haven, lie two remarkable persons, close to each other, namely, the Professor de l'Isle de la Crovière, who accompanied Commodore Behning, as astronomer, and Captain Clarke, who succeeded Captain Cook in the command. From the lake just noticed, you may, at low water, walk round the mountainous peninsula which encloses the haven on the western side, and the extent of the town will not exceed two versts; but this path is very stony and fatiguing, it is therefore little frequented, except by sportsmen, who go in search of mews, or sawkas, (*Anas hiemalis*), a species of ducks.

By some beds of rock in this peninsula, we discovered green jasper marl, on which were the representations of shrubs or trees; we also found, in the crevices of the rocks, some layers of amaranth, not very large, and remarkably thin.

For some time after our arrival, there was no fresh fish to be had. In the beginning of November, we began to catch wachnas in abundance, and occasionally herrings. The wachna, (*Gadus aeglefinus*), is a sort of stock-fish, about half a yard in length, with a roundish body, and three dorsal fins. When taken out of the water, it is perfectly of a copper colour, but soon turns quite pale. Its flesh is white, but soft, and not pleasant to the taste. The roe is, however, of a fine texture, and has the best flavour. It is an inhabitant of the European Ocean, but most frequently found in Kamtschatka. We were now enabled to provide ourselves with fresh and healthy food, but on the failure of this resource, we should have been compelled to live on salt provisions alone, if we had not persuaded a Kosak to sell us a cow for 65 rubles: the animal was not very large, and yielded but an inconsiderable quantity of meat, yet we contrived to eke it out as long as possible. The whole haven of Petropaulowsk, could not produce more than this cow and seven oxen, belonging to the crown, which had been driven hither from the fortress of Werchné-Kamtschatka for the expedition that was to have gone out, under the command of Captain Molowsky. But it was prevented by the breaking out of the Swedish war, in which this estimable officer fell, and if I mistake not, in the first engagement under Admiral Grëig, in 1788; otherwise the Russian flag would probably have waved 14 or 15 years earlier under

the equator. At the period of the first Kamtschatkish expedition, about 50 years ago, some horned cattle were transported hither, which we might suppose would have considerably multiplied with proper care. It is impossible to find a place more fitted for breeding cattle than Kamtschatka. It has a number of enclosures, particularly in the vicinity of Petropaulowsk, by the rivers Awatska and Paratunka, which yield an excellent pasture of tall and nutritious grass, well calculated to give the flesh a delicious flavour.

On the approach of winter, the inhabitants are busied with putting their sledges in order, and tying up their dogs, to fit them for drawing, as they are in fine weather allowed to run loose. Sledges and dogs are in general use here, both for travelling and conveyance. Mr. Hall, and I also, furnished ourselves with one, taking at first only small journies with three dogs; but growing bolder afterwards, as our skill increased, we ventured with five dogs over the mountains, to the dwelling-place of Paratunka, 25 versts distant from Petropaulowsk.

The sledges here differ very considerably from those of Ochotsk, being shorter, smaller, lighter, and much higher. They will scarcely hold two, and are very unsteady on account of their monstrous height. In descending any hill, the utmost care and dexterity is requisite, to keep the feet and the oschtol in the proper direction; for the smallest oversight of this kind may cost a person his life, as has been the case with even experienced drivers, who have been dashed to pieces against the trees lying in the way.

The management of the dogs is no less difficult and dangerous here than at Ochotsk; for they are equally apt to become ungovernable on the scent of any animal. In order to stop them, they drive the oschtol between the front sledge of the conveyance as far into the snow as possible, and always keep the two fore dogs in a tight rein, that none may be able to run away. When the declivity of any mountain is unusually steep and dangerous, they bind birch-twigs round the bottom of the sledge, to impede its course. The cry of ko ko ko stops the dogs, aach aach drives them on; chua chua chua, turns them to the right; and uga uga uga, to the left. Hunters do not make use of these words, for fear of frightening their game, but strike gently with the oschtol on the right side of the sledge, when they should turn to the right, and bend them down to the snow to the left, when they should go to the left. Besides the danger in this mode of travelling, it is attended with many inconveniencies. You must never let your dogs go loose. If ever you are overturned, you must rather be dragged along in the snow than leave your hold, for it is a great disgrace to lose your

dogs, and he obliged to wade through the snow on foot; not to mention that the dogs very often entangle themselves in their harness, in which case, the driver must take off his gloves in the cold to put them to rights, and is often in danger of being soiled with their dung. The worst trick you can play a driver, is to cast a piece of jukol among his dogs, who fight for it until they are thrown into the utmost confusion. If he be in company with others, he is thus prevented from keeping up with them, and exposed to all the inconveniencies of going behind; the principal of which is, that the dung of the other dogs is continually freezing on his sledge, and requires him every moment to clear it away with his knife. When you get to a public-house, you are not free from your dogs. The instant they are unharnessed, they must be tied to a post. Nor can they be immediately fed, for they must wait until the sweat is dried off. A whole or half a jukol is then given them, but the master must stand by to see that every dog gets his part, and also to drive away the crows, which are not very shy in this country. They will collect in great quantities round the dogs if not thus guarded, and snap up all their allowance.

Captain Billings going with Mr. Hall, the surgeon, at the close of November to the fortress of Bolscherezsk, Mr. Behring and I followed him, agreeable to his request, at the end of December. We set off with our dogs from Petropaulowsk, and proceeded by the bay of Awatska, over little acclivities covered with birch-wood. On the summit of one we saw a loose stone thoroughly burnt, about five yards in circumference. It appeared to have been thrown out from some volcanic mountain; but as that of Awatska, the very nearest, is certainly 40 versts distant, it is not probable for a stone of that weight to have been hurled so far on any eruption, however violent. It is a far more feasible conjecture, that the explosion formerly took place in a quarter nearer this spot. It is in fact not altogether improbable, that the place now occupied by the bay of Awatska, was formerly a volcanic mountain, which fell in and formed this harbour. It retains at least many traces of having originated from a convulsion of the earth. Seven versts from the harbour we left the above heights and descended into a plain that extends for 20 versts, and is intersected by the two rivers Awatska and Paratunka. We stopped at the Kamtschadale place, of the same name with the latter river, which lies seven versts distant from its mouth, and has a wooden church, the remains of what had been built on the expedition of commodore Behring.

From the fortress of Paratunka, the way leads up the river Awatska, where we found many otters, and discovered the traces of sables and foxes.

The sables of this place are not esteemed the best, but the Kamtschadale red foxes are superior to any of their kind, and are sold at remarkably high prices when they are of a fiery red colour. From this particular they have received the name of Ognenken. Besides these animals, there are, as we learn from the Kamtschadales, wild sheep, reindeer, bears, and wolves, in the mountains. The last are the most dangerous, and frequently make fierce attacks on travellers in the winter. But the bears are so peaceable, as even to be afraid of human beings, and run away at the sight of them.

After travelling three and thirty versts, we took up our night's lodging at the little fortress of Koratchin, so called from its having been first founded and inhabited by the Koraks. This dwelling-place was separated by 30 versts of mountainous country from the fortress of Natschinsk or Natcheecken.

Two versts distant from here is a hot spring, called Natschinskish. We turned a little out of the road to visit this water, which, notwithstanding the severity of the cold, was still remarkably tepid, having a sulphureous smell and a bitter taste. We threw in some pieces of money, which, in a few hours, received the light grey colour of tin. The Kamtschadales make very frequent use of this spring for a bath; on which account it was paled in, in two different places, one above, at its source, for the winter, and the other below, for the summer. We wished to see the rise of this spring, but were prevented by the swampiness of the ground from approaching sufficiently near.

We set off from hence before day-break, in order to reach the little fortress of Apatschinsk, 95 versts distant, in one day. Our way led over lofty mountains that stretch in a continued chain from the interior of Kamtschatka to the shore; where they are lost in rocky declivities. Apatschinsk lies on the river Bolschaja, as you descend from these mountains. From here to the fortress of Bolscherezsk were only 40 versts, which we went by a direct and even road in less than four hours.

The fortress of Bolscherezsk, situated on the banks of the Bolschaja, has a church and thirty habitations. Its inhabitants consist principally of Kosaks, with a few merchants and citizens. Before the advancement of the fortress Nishne-Kamtschatzsk to the rank of a town, the first magistrate of Kamtschatka made this his place of residence; but now a serjeant is commander of the fortress. The Kosaks here are much more opulent than those of Petropaulowsk, almost all of them having their cattle and a good domestic economy. Their gardens are stocked with excellent turnips and potatoes. For the introduction of the latter vegetable they are indebted to counsellor Reineke, the former commander of Kamtschatka.

All the inhabitants here are usually dressed like the Kamtschadale.
[SARYTSHEW.]

schadales, in *narkas* and *kamlegas*. The former are the skins of reindeer, cut into shirts; and the latter are skins of any kind, stripped of their hair, and made quite pliant. On holidays, the women wear a sort of silk gown of an old Russian shape, which was fashionable 60 years ago. They have also a speckled silk handkerchief about their heads.

In the first days of the new year, the inhabitants assembled every evening for the purpose of dancing. The women understood Russian dances very well, and what was still more surprising, could dance in the Polish fashion, and very passably even *à la Grecque*. The music consisted of three fiddles, played by Kosaks.

I did not see the Kamtschadale dance here, but among the Kosaks of Petropaulowsk, who give it the preference, it is so indecent, that every modest woman would blush to be a spectator, much more a partner in it. A woman makes the commencement by stepping forward into the middle of the *Isba*, and holding a cloth spread out before her in a transverse direction. She shifts her feet slowly, making a variety of motions with her hands, head, and body. Her head sinks alternately on one shoulder or the other, on her back or on her breast. She then at length advances to a man, and renews this gesticulation close before him, which implies as much as soliciting his hand to the dance. He accordingly takes hold of the cloth in the same manner, and rising from his seat, they both commence the distortion of all their limbs together. The woman turns every now and then away from the man, but returns to him instantly again, sinking gradually upon her knees, and then bending herself backward with a similar gesticulation; the man also in the mean time falling down and reclining himself over her, the dance is concluded with the most obscene gestures. While it lasts, both dancers and spectators all sing to one song, consisting of the words *an-kelle*, *an-kaget*, incessantly repeated: but they have a variety of such monotonous ditties, adapted to the same species of dancing. In some of their dances, they imitate birds and beasts; the man for example representing the male, and the woman the female-bear; and sometimes there is a company of these imitators, who amuse themselves together, either in running like partridges, gabbling like geese, or in aping some other animal.

After a fortnight's stay at Bolscherezsk, Mr. Billings and Mr. Hall went to Nishne-Kamtschatsk, while Mr. Behring and I returned to Petropaulowsk, which we reached in five days.

On our journey thither and back, we experienced the most friendly treatment from the Kamtschadales, who not only entertained us with the utmost cordiality, but made us liberal presents of partridges, fresh fish, frozen keta, jukol, berries, and roots,

which are collected in great quantities from the mouse-holes, and form one of their principal aliments.

In autumn, they go into the fields in search of these roots, and as soon as they find hollow ground, by stamping, they dig down, and lay open the store-rooms of these animals. They do not, however, empty them entirely, but leave the mice a third at least of their provision, probably with a view of not driving away such useful creatures. They terrify each other, indeed, with the saying, that the mouse which is deprived of all its sustenance, will hang itself in despair on the next tree: a tale which may perhaps have originated in the circumstance of a mouse having been entangled by accident in the branches of a tree, and having hung there till it died.

On comparing the present condition of the Kamtschadales, and their way of living, with Krascheninikow's description of them, we find them to have undergone a remarkable change. They have now almost entirely renounced their former superstitious customs, and submitted to baptism. Jurts, or subterraneous dwellings, are now vanished, and their place is every where supplied by Russian isbas. The female Kamtschadales have a dress for holidays very similar to those of the female Kosaks, for they wear stomachers and petticoats, and bind a handkerchief round their heads. The abundance of fish, and the facility with which they procure a subsistence, now grown peasant by habit, are probably the causes why they make no exertions in agriculture, or the breeding of cattle. It is much more remarkable, that their long and close intercourse with the Russians should not have given them a little more worldly wisdom; for they continue to this moment to barter their sables and foxes skins for the merest trifles. With this deficiency in cultivation, they retain, however, their good qualities, and are just as good-hearted, sincere, peaceable, obliging, and hospitable as before. Their prominent faults are uncleanness and idleness. Thieving is very rare, and murder still more rare. Some travellers charge them with the vice of drunkenness, but I cannot confirm this with my testimony; whatever bad exceptions there may be, they cannot serve as a general rule.

Notwithstanding the Kamtschadales have renounced most of their former superstitions, they still retain a firm belief in the supernatural powers of the schamans. A Kosak once profited by this credulity to regain his stolen property in a very ingenious manner. While on a journey with several Kamtschadales he had some of his tobacco stolen from him, and, after questioning every individual separately, he was unable to discover who was the thief. He accordingly took some sticks, and making them of equal lengths, gave each of them one, with the assurance, that the stick of the thief would infallibly grow longer by the

power of schamanary. This unpleasant intelligence had such an effect on the imagination of the thief, that he actually conceived that his stick did increase in length, and thought to relieve himself from this dilemma by breaking a piece off. The next morning, every Kamtschadale carrying back his stick, the thief was instantly discovered. He was now obliged to confess the theft, and make restoration. His apology was, that all his own tobacco being gone, he had no money to buy more, and could not dispense with this necessary. Tobacco was remarkably dear at that time in Kamtschatka, a single pound costing a hundred rubles; and yet the inhabitants of this place sacrificed every thing to the indulgence of their passion for this intoxicating herb. Its ordinary price on a fresh supply is only two rubles and a half.

Tobacco is one of the most lucrative branches of trade in these parts, and always finds a ready sale; for there is not a tribe or nation having any intercourse with the Russians, which does not smoke, chew, and take snuff. The Burats, Jakuts, Koraks, Jakugirens, and Tschukschens, like the strong Tscherkapian tobacco, and are not fond of that which grows in the country of Irkutsk. They smoke it with a mixture of half saw-dust; but the Kamtschadales and Aleutians only chew tobacco and take snuff.

CHAP. XI.

WINTER OCCUPATION ON BOARD THE SHIP.—TREMBLINGS OF THE EARTH, AND ERUPTION OF THE KLUTSCHÉWISH CRATER.—SCURVY AMONG THE MEN.—EQUIPMENT OF THE VESSEL.—DESCRIPTION OF THE BAY AWATSKA.—HINTS ON THE FACILITY OF ESTABLISHING A TRADE FROM KAMTSCHATKA TO THE EAST INDIES.

THE winter afforded us a good opportunity for completing what had remained unfinished at Ochotsk. We built another cutter with six oars of alder wood, fetched from the banks of the Paratunka, at thirty versts distance. We had, indeed, birch-wood in the vicinity of the harbour, which served for many useful purposes, but was not close enough for vessels of any magnitude. For shallops and other small craft, however, this wood is in general use here, and always found to answer. The double-built shallop of Kamtschatkian birch, which was used on the first expedition, not only lasted the time required, but was afterwards employed as a victualling barge from Ochotsk to Kamtschatka. Judging from the richness of the soil, I should be inclined to think, that oaks might be introduced here by acorns, and would thrive remarkably well.

On the 25th of February, we observed an evident agitation of the earth, which is very frequent and strong, owing to its

proximity with the volcanic mountain of Awatska; but this was the first of the kind during our stay here. This mountain was likewise perfectly quiet, and emitted nothing but smoke; while the Klutschewish summit, on the other hand, sent forth, in January, flames, stones, lava, and a quantity of black sand, with which the whole circumjacent country was covered.

Captain Billings returned from Nisne-Kamtschatsk at the end of March. By the middle of April, our cutter was in a sufficient state of readiness to receive its tackling and other appurtenances. About this time, the bay of Awatska became perfectly free from the ice which had collected near its banks during the winter; but the sideward bays, the Rakowoi, Targinskoi, and Petropaulowsk harbours, continued under ice until the 1st of May.

Many of our people were afflicted with the scurvy this winter, owing to the want of proper nutriment. On the approach of spring, the evil gained ground rather than otherwise; but as soon as they had an opportunity of getting fresh fish, they mended daily, so that in the beginning of May they were almost entirely recovered. The malmas, berries, kambalas, and keuschens, now came in shoals into the rivers, and the green of a species of garlic, began to make its appearance.

Our vessel being perfectly ready for sailing on the 1st of May, our people were all assembled on board. We brought it out of the harbour and anchored at its mouth, in expectation of a favourable wind for running out. I sailed about in the mean time for the purpose of surveying the bay of Awatska, and the two side bays. Rakowoi is three leagues long, and half a league broad; its depth is from 6 to 13 fathoms, and its bottom is muddy. The other, Targinskoi, situated on the north-west side of the Awatska bay, is five miles in length, and half a mile in breadth. Its north-east bank consists of a narrow mountainous promontory, which separates it from the Awatska bay. It has 13 fathom of water in the middle, which diminishes as you proceed downwards. Its bottom is likewise muddy.

The two rivers, Awatska and Paratunka, flow into the northern part of Awatskish bay, after running down the mountains through several low lands. From the mouth of these rivers upwards, there is a dry place half a mile broad; but elsewhere, the whole bay is tolerably deep, and would admit of large vessels to lie at anchor in 14 fathoms water. The bottom in the deepest places is muddy, but in the shallower parts is sandy.

This and the other bays would serve as good anchoring grounds for the most numerous fleet. It is truly lamentable, that a harbour so well formed by nature, should remain unused. In a short time it might become an important station, if our merchants paid due attention to the advantages they could derive from their trade with China, Japan, and the East Indies.

The bay of Awatska might then be the principal rendezvous for all vessels going on the chase, to the Islands and America, or trading to the East Indies; for on all the shores belonging to Russia in this quarter, there is not a securer and more commodious place for the mooring of ships. In this case it would be necessary to build warehouses for the merchandise.

With regard to the commodities that might constitute our trade with China and Japan, the products of these parts, independent of those from Russia, would amply suffice, as sea-beavers, sea-lions, otters, foxes, minevers, and above all the fangs of the walrus or river-horse. But the most important commerce might be carried on with train-oil and whalebone, whenever proper arrangements could be made for catching the whales which frequent these seas in vast numbers. Not to mention, that the shoals of other fish which are to be found in Kamtschatka, would prove no inconsiderable source of advantage when salted and dried.

The conveyance of East India products into the interior of Russia by the bay of Awatska, might be greatly facilitated by carrying them from hence in small craft to the Aldomish bay, and then by the river Maia to the Jakutsk.

If in addition to the advantages resulting from this trade, a colony were raised here, agriculture extended, the breeding of cattle encouraged, and all sorts of manufactures established, Kamtschatka would in a short time rival the greatest part of Europe in affluence and cultivation. The climate is temperate, and the soil prolific in whatever is essential for living. Agriculture has been attended to with tolerable success for some time on the river Kamtschatka by the upper fortress, and in the village of Klutschewsk, which is inhabited by Russian peasants; but with so small a number of labourers the progress is not visible.

Provisions for the military are imported from Ochotsk. A pood of ryë-flower (about forty pounds), costs the government 3 dollars 75 kopeks. The tschetwerik (360 pounds) of buckwheat and barley grits, six rubles. Potatoes, which have been introduced here about 10 years, thrive very well, and increase particularly in Bolscherezsk, where the greatest care is taken of them. It is also very certain, that flax and linen might be produced here, which would be cheaper than what is imported, the coarsest of which is sold at 70 kopeks, or a dollar, (3s. 6d.) a yard.

The spirits here are extracted from a sweet herb, and are equally offensive both in taste and smell. They cost 40 rubles a pail.

Copper money is scarcely known in Kamtschatka, silver coin only being in use; but small notes or assignations are beginning to get introduced.

TRAVELS
IN
THE CRIMEA,

AND
ALONG THE SHORES OF THE
BLACK SEA,

PERFORMED DURING THE YEAR 1803,

BY J. REUILLY,

AUDITOR OF THE FRENCH COUNCIL OF STATE, MEMBER OF THE
LEGION OF HONOUR, &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

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1807.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

THE present work is the result of my observations during my residence in the Crimea, as well as of my reading, and the information which I acquired from many well-informed persons, amongst whom, with pride, I mention M. Pallas, to whose liberal communications I am indebted for an ample series of interesting facts.

This venerable and illustrious traveller received me with peculiar kindness, and his house soon became my home. He bears his age uncommonly well; his dress is simple, and his conversation always interesting. When he was out of his study, this learned naturalist appeared one of the most agreeable men in the world, and nobody could be more capable of giving an accurate account of the country in which he has resided several years. He had the complaisance to read over and correct the observations which I had made, and even to enrich them with notes of his own.

The remarks which several travellers have made upon the Crimea, are either imperfect or obsolete. I have therefore availed myself of that information

which some of them have given, but particularly that of M. Pallas, as far as it corroborates my own remarks; and I have given an account of the changes which have taken place in the Crimea, from its occupation by the Russians to the present day.

The kindness of M. Pallas has been seconded in France by the learned continuator of Buffon; and I with gratitude add the names of the celebrated Messrs. Lacépède, Langlès, and Millin, who have enriched my work with two interesting essays on the coins and medals which are mentioned in my travels.

TRAVELS

IN THE

CRIMEA, &c. &c.

CHAP. I.

MY DEPARTURE FROM ST. PETERSBURG FOR ODESSA, AND FROM THENCE TO THE CRIMEA.

I LEFT St. Petersburg in the beginning of February, 1803, in company with M. de Richelieu, who had just been appointed governor-general of Odessa. I was induced to quit the capital of Russia, after residing in it two months, merely through my desire to see the Crimea. Never did a traveller set off in higher spirits or more favourable weather; though, as I had several friends to part from, I went away with rather a heavy heart. I had been treated with great kindness, and had received such testimonies of friendship, that I experienced every sentiment which renders a separation painful. Being left to myself, without the power of communicating my ideas or sensations, I undertook a long journey to a country which was to me unknown; as was also the language of the people by whom it is inhabited. The anxiety which I experienced, and the silence which I was obliged to observe, were therefore rather irksome.

I soon, however, arrived at the Liman, which advances from the sea into the Steppe^{*}: the south winds often render its passage dangerous; but I passed it, riding behind my conductor, and my carriage arrived safe: thanks to the care and strength of the Cossacks, who preceded my horses, and who drew it through the water.

About forty versts† farther, I past near a village partly in ruins, in which some Moldavians had just established themselves, and were dancing to the music of a kind of bag-pipe, to celebrate their new acquisition. In the environs I saw vast flocks of partridges and bustards; and if I had not been obliged to pro-

^{*} Steppe is a vast rough and uncultivated plain, which produces neither trees nor shrubs. On meeting with a boy about thirteen years old, we asked him how long it would be before we should come to some trees? His only answer was, what do you mean by trees?

† A verst is about three quarters of an English mile.—Editor.

ceed immediately to Nicolaïef, I should have had the best possible sport.

I had already travelled eighty versts from the above village, and had only met with one man. The night beginning to fall, I was affected by a melancholy torpor, in consequence of my reflections on the barren regions which I had passed over.

About ten at night, I approached towards the banks of the Bog: this river is here nearly three versts in width; and the watermen, who were fatigued by their day's work, would not ferry me over. I was therefore obliged to sleep in my britschka, or Polonese carriage, which is not hung upon springs till break of day. On waking, I was much surprised to find myself already placed in the boat, which was to convey me to the opposite shore: being, however, detained, I could not conceive what prevented us from going off, when I observed a crowd of men and women rushing towards the boat, in order to be carried over to the market with various articles which they had for sale. In vain I remonstrated against their admission, in consequence of the great number of passengers who were on board, and who, including the sailors, amounted to eighty in number, besides four oxen. We were, indeed, all alarmed at the crowded state of the vessel; but we had a fortunate passage.

On arriving at Nicolaïef, I delivered my letters of recommendation, and met with the kindest reception from the Marquis de Traversey, the admiral and commander in chief of all the Russian ships in the Black Sea. I was recommended to him by M. Richelieu, and this recommendation was attended with every effect which I could wish.

M. de Beklecheff, the governor-general, also received me with great familiarity; and being informed of the intent of my journey, he gave me letters of recommendation to the governor of Sympheropol.

In France and England, a person who travels post, may be said to run; but in Russia he flies, particularly when travelling in the government of New Russia. I set off at half past eight in the morning from Nicolaïef, and at a quarter past twelve I found myself at the gates of Cherson, having travelled sixty versts.

The Russian establishments on the Black Sea drew from me the reflection, that a country cannot be otherwise than unfortunate, in which every individual consults only his private interest or personal ambition. Enormous sums have been squandered on these settlements without effect: Potemkin founded Cherson; but after his death it was neglected. Falleef laid the foundations of Nicolaïef, but they were soon afterwards abandoned for



• A group of people on horseback and on foot, traveling along a dirt road. In the background, a large, dark, rectangular structure, possibly a tent or a large building, stands on a hillside. The scene is set in a rural, hilly landscape.



• Taking leave of the Santa River.

Odessa, of which admiral Ribas was the projector: this new establishment was in its turn neglected, and would have gone to ruin, except for the paternal views of the emperor Alexander.

I left Cherson on the 22d of April, at ten at night, and soon arrived on the banks of the Ingulet, or little Ingul, which is so called in order to distinguish it from a small river of the same name, which the Bog receives at Nicolaïef; this river, which empties itself into the Dnieper, some versts above Cherson, is not very wide, and is passed in an open boat, made far more carefully than any of those that I before observed in this country.

The scite on the other side of the river is tolerably pleasant: on the banks of a small bay, which is formed by a winding of the Ingulet, is a little well-built village, which is called Repniska; all the shore is bounded by rocks.

By break of day I had reached Bereslaw, formerly called Kizikerman. A dreadful cloud of dust is one of the greatest inconveniences of this journey: because nothing can secure the traveller against it; it penetrates every where, and renders the eyes uncommonly painful. I was, however, assured, that the Nogay Tartars cover their eyes with a kind of spectacles, to prevent its operation during their excursions. The Dnieper is crossed opposite to the village lately mentioned; and at which the violence of the wind forced me to pass the day. From the Dnieper to the sea of Azof and the lines of the Ukraine, in the Crimea, is called Nogays' Tartary; it is an immense plain, in which neither the smallest shrub nor hillock is perceptible.

I met several bodies of travellers with caravans, who were conveying, either to Poland or the ports of the Black Sea, the salt which the Crimea abundantly produces. The caravans were halting, and the conductors were sleeping around a large fire with their vehicles behind them, while their oxen were grazing in the vicinity.

It was from these vast deserts that the hordes of Tartars issued, who overran Russia and Poland. These savage and ferocious people subsisted by robbery and murder, and lived under tents, which they removed from place to place; while they kept numerous troops of horses, which, during a great part of the year, sought their own provender.

The Nogays were, and are still of opinion, that no stranger can traverse their plains without envying them such possessions; so much are men attached to early habits and prejudices.

I was not long in reaching the Crimea, which, since it came into the possession of Russia, has been distinguished by its ancient name of Taurida.

 CHAP. II.

GEOGRAPHICAL ACCOUNT OF THE CRIMEA, ITS NATURAL HISTORY, GENERAL APPEARANCE, COMPOSITION OF ITS MOUNTAINS, MINES, &c.

THE Crimea, which was formerly known by the name of the Tauridan Chersonesus, is a peninsula, bounded to the south and west by the Black Sea; to the east by the strait of Zabaché and the sea of Azof; while to the north it is limited by a large isthmus, about a geographical mile in extent, by which it is united to the continent, where it communicates with the steppes of Nogays' Tartary. It is probable, that the Crimea was formerly detached from it, and constituted with its higher and southern part, a perfect island. This opinion was maintained by the ancients, and has been supported by several modern authors, who, as well as Pliny, Herodotus, Strabo, &c. assert, that the flowing of the Black Sea into the Mediterranean, is in consequence of its separation from the Caspian sea, and the gradual desiccation which resulted from it.

The Crimea is situated between $51^{\circ} 9'$ and $53^{\circ} 44'$ east longitude, and $44^{\circ} 44'$ and $45^{\circ} 65'$ north latitude. Most of the maps now extant, place it on an average between $51^{\circ} 30'$ and $55^{\circ} 10'$ east longitude, and from $44^{\circ} 5'$ to 46° north latitude.

On looking at a map, it will be seen that three fourths of the Crimea towards the north, form nothing but a vast plain, bounded to the south by a chain of mountains which runs from S. E. to N. W. in a direction parallel with the southern shore of the Black Sea. This chain, which is seldom interrupted, extends from Balaclava almost as far as Caffa, being a length of about 150 versts, by an unequal width. It is composed of several links, and closed in the interstices by a second file of mountains, which are lower and more northerly.

On entering the Crimea, the eye wanders over a barren and level surface, consisting of an immense plain, without trees, rivulets, or hills, which reaches farther than the perceptible horizon, and stretches towards the southern part of the peninsula. On approaching towards Sympheropol, the scene suddenly changes, and the fatigued eye discovers in the distance a chain

of high mountains, interspersed with several Tartar villages and woods of high poplars, scattered here and there amidst cultivated fields and meadows, refreshed by the waters of the Salghir: the soil now visibly begins to rise as far as the apparent bases of the mountains, which also rise by degrees one above the other as far as the sea, of which they form the southern boundary.

All the chain of mountains in the Crimea, rises in an evident manner towards the south; and forms, almost without interruption along the maritime coast, a line of prodigious escarpments: their general form consists of elevated cones, or, as they are philosophically called, nipples, which are fractured and traversed by long and narrow valleys. These cones become flat in a gradual manner towards the north; some of them are barren, but the greater part are covered with woods: this chain of mountains contains several springs of water: those which run towards the north, spread themselves through all the valleys; while those which take a southern direction, fertilize all the spots situated along the south shore of the Black Sea.

The most elevated point of the Crimea, is the summit of a mountain, the configuration of which had induced the Tartars to give it the name of Tchatyrdagh, or the tent mountain, and which was certainly the Trapetzos of the Greeks. Having been so imprudent as to ascend the Tchatyrdagh, towards evening, notwithstanding the representations of my guides, night overtook us, and the darkness was increased by the woods through which we were obliged to pass. After a journey of two hours, through rugged and very narrow paths, in which we were every instant in danger of breaking our necks, my guide confessed to my interpreter that they knew not where they were, having totally lost their way. Being much pressed by hunger, we endeavoured, but in vain, to retrace our steps, and find the path which we had missed; every now and then our progress was stopped by trees, and we could not prevent many blows in the face which we received from the branches. Our horses were wearied; mine had even lain down overcome, as I supposed, by fatigue, when M. Guleira, a Genoese, who accompanied me, came to assist me in forcing the animal to get up; but he obstinately refused to stir. Disgusted with his resistance, I endeavoured to find out what occasioned it, when I saw that he was entangled amongst the branches of underwood, which concealed one of the perpendicular precipices so common in these mountains: his instinct therefore evidently saved my life. After wandering much longer about the mountain and through the wood, often incurring imminent danger, our guides made us consent to pass the night without proceeding farther, notwithstanding the extreme cold and hunger with which we were afflicted. One of them,

who was worthy of being a Friday to a new Robinson Crusoe, succeeded in kindling a fire from some dry leaves and branches, which we increased to a great extent, and then slept around it till break of day. We then met with the path which led us to a village on the road to Aluchta, where a breakfast of sour mare's milk and black bread appeared to us delicious.

To return to a description of the Tchatyrdagh: its clouded point may be seen in clear weather at the distance of eighty versts. The mountain, comprising the extent of its base, must be nearly ten versts in length from north to south, and between five and six from east to west. The Tchatyrdagh appears to be divided into three parts or degrees; though rough, the road of the first part is tolerably good, and even passable for carriages: it is about two versts in length, and is shaded by medlar and oak trees; and from this first division of the mountain issues a fine cold spring. The second division is much steeper, but the road is passable by horses. The elm is the only tree which this part contains. On reaching the base of the uppermost division, horses can no longer be used to ascend towards the summit, as this part is composed of rocky terraces, disposed above each other like steps, which it is even difficult to climb. The uppermost platform of the mountain seems to be a small plain of stones. The rock is peeled or naked; and there are seen several large spots, which seem as if hollowed out, as well as others, which resemble round pits, wherein the snow remains throughout the year. On taking possession of the Crimea, the mountain was measured, when its height was found to be about 1200 feet above the level of the sea; but as the crevices in which the snow remains are not very deep, I am induced to think that this estimate is inaccurate. In clear weather one may see from this eminence the greatest part of the peninsula, and the sea, which runs along its whole extent. The Tchatyrdagh is considered in the vicinity as an excellent barometer: when covered with clouds it indicates rain; but when it is entirely clear, it announces a succession of fine weather.

The mountains often change their apparent forms and aspects; and the embellishments of the scenery vary at every step, as if by magical power. Sometimes the oaks, beech, elms, pines, wild cherry-trees, walnut-trees, elders, hawthorns, and arbutetrees, which cover the mountains, give them a degree of liveliness which delights the traveller, who is wearied by the nakedness of the Steppes; at other times, the enormous rocks which are heaped above each other, present a prospect that is both interesting and sublime. Here, the gradations of the mountains, which are covered by gardens filled with odoriferous flowers, and watered by numerous springs, every where impart a health-

ful fragrance :—there, are to be seen nothing but barren rocks without verdure, and even without soil ; while nature seems to have taken delight in diversifying their shapes. In several parts the springs fall in cascades from the summits of the steep rocks, particularly those of the Akar-sou. At length the sensations and pleasure of the observer are varied by the appearance of mountains abundantly covered with wood of all kinds, portions of well cultivated lands, rocks rising to a prodigious height, which are seen through chasms, and whose sides are covered with numerous shrubs, the bark of which being of a blood red, and the flowers white, form a striking contrast with the grey colour of the stone. The prospect is greatly heightened by the flocks and herds that graze on the summits of the mountains, the dull roaring of the sea, the noise from the falls of the water, the roughness of the roads, and the depth of the precipices ; so that the traveller does not leave these parts without regret, particularly as their distance, and the difficulty of the road, seldom permit of his paying them more than one visit.

With respect to the structure of the mountains, they are formed of calcarious rock, which is hard, grey, and arranged in strata of different degrees of thickness, together with layers of a schistous and argillaceous nature. There are also found in these horizontal strata, which are alternate and repeated a great number of times, a quantity of breccia, formed of flints compacted together, as well as several varieties of wakke and serpentine ; but the last are the scarcest of any.

The hard calcarious rock exhibits scarcely any trace of recognisable petrifications ; and those which are found, are mostly degraded corallites. Amongst the hard schisti which are often inserted between those of clay, is found a blackish kind of slate, sometimes mixed with sand, and at others disposed in very thin laminae. In the most eastern part of these mountains the sandy schistus is often a sort of free-stone, so very fine, that the grain of it can scarcely be perceived. The hardest parts of this stone exhibit in their fractures many chrystalised filaments of transparent quartz, which are sometimes replaced by real rock-crystal. There may also be reckoned among this free-stone many strata of mill-stone, which form whole mountains in the environs of Sudagh.

In several parts of the Crimea, but particularly near Inkermann, the rivulet Sabla, about sixteen versts from Akmetshet, and in a valley between Aktiar and Balaclava, are the mines of Kil ; a name which the Tartars give to an excellent kind of greyish fuller's-earth, that serves as soap. They dig wells in the form of funnels, to penetrate as far as the argillaceous strata, which, at about two feet in depth, presents an uncommonly

fat crust, underneath which is a white cretaceous marl. When they have dug as deep as possible in one of these wells, they abandon it, and dig another; while the lumps of earth which fall from the sides soon fill it up.

The strata of argillaceous schistus are sometimes as hard as that of the same kind in mines, and they are often coloured by a martial ochre; they sometimes contain, in lumps or strings, and at others, in entire beds, masses of detached ores, or perfect kidneys of a red, brown, or grey colour, loaded with clay, sometimes hollow and in laminæ, at others heavy and compact. These are chiefly found in the mountains to the east that are situated near the villages of Koos and Sudagh; and in those to the west, between Laspi and Foros, near a part which the Tartars call Alasma. There has not hitherto been discovered in the Crimea the least trace of any other metal.

The highest and oldest mountains of the Crimea form the southern boundary of this peninsula, and extend from Caffa to Balaclava. After having passed the cape behind which Caffa is situated, you ascend the eastern side of the mountain of Karadagh, in which there was formerly a Tartar village, with a metshet and a handsome fountain. The road runs round the base of this great mountain, the crest of which is very high, and surmounted by rocks of a conical form. Soon after you arrive at the valley of Otus, in which are two little villages at a short distance from each other: this valley is watered by a rivulet, and its soil is favourable for the culture of the vine and other fruit-trees; the surrounding heights are covered with wood. The road which leads to Koos passes over some steep hills, and soon becomes impracticable for carriages; while there may occasionally be observed on it some beds of iron ore. The valley beyond Koos contains several orchards, and the population of this village is still very considerable. Before the emigration of the Greeks there were many persons in it who occupied themselves with the culture of the vine: the mountains in the vicinity furnish an abundance of blocks of free-stone, which the inhabitants use for building their houses and the walls of their vineyards. The valley of Koos is very hot, being secured from the cold winds by the high mountains, which all run in a south-east direction, and nearly in parallel chains. This valley contains a number of gardens and vineyards; it extends to a length of upwards of three versts as far as the sea, and near the village it divides into two other spacious plains.

To the left you leave the great mountainous ridge called Bayuksirt, which advances into the sea, and soon afterwards arrive at the village of Tokluk, situated four versts from the sea, and surrounded by vineyards, which produce a tolerably good

wine. Between this village and the shore there is seen on a hillock a remarkable rock, composed of enormous masses of fractured calcarious stone. The Tartars have given it the name *Paralem-kaja*, or the broken rock.

The road which leads to *Sudagh* extends to a considerable distance along the shore, on account of the numerous ravines which descend from the *Tokluk-sirt*. After passing between the *Altch-kaia* and the *Atshik-sirt* you perceive the valley of *Sudagh*; which is upwards of three versts in length, by twain width, and is famed for the excellent wine which it produces. It extends from the sea-shore amongst the mountains in a direction almost from south to north, and is prolonged in a narrower manner to the north and the west. It is covered with vineyards and orchards; its lower part, which forms an oval plain perceptibly inclining to the south, is exposed to the rays of the sun, which gives a remarkably rich flavour to the grapes, that is not possessed by those in the higher valleys. It is watered by several rivulets, the streams of which being conveyed by means of canals, produce fertility in every part. The mountains in the vicinity are not the highest in the Crimea, but they are generally fractured and extremely steep.

The ancient Genoese fortress of *Soldaya* is situated on a very steep rock, which, towards the sea, is almost perpendicular. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall furnished with towers, some of which are round, and others square. The wall on the sea-side is interrupted by the rocks which project in a perpendicular manner; it contains arched wells, which are large and deep. A few years ago there might be seen the ruins of several buildings in a gothic style; but on the eastern side of the town there remain none except the large and handsome cathedral church, and the towers and walls of the place.

On following the course of the rivulet *Karagatch*, and climbing the heights, you come, about ten versts from *Sudagh*, to the hamlet of *Kutlak*, which is situated in a spacious valley planted with vines and surrounded by hills of a moderate height. Near *Kutlak* is a very high quarry, which the inhabitants work with great perseverance, and roll down into the valley the blocks which they detach from the upper parts; almost all the mills in the Crimea are supplied with these stones.

After crossing several valleys, you perceive, at about a verst and a half from the sea, that of *Kapsokor*, which is covered with orchards and vineyards; it lies between the mountains in a very advantageous position. The Tartars who reside on this spot are in easy circumstances; their plain is surrounded by eminences, and contains many extensive fields, which produce cucumbers and hemp. The hills are covered with woods.

About half way from Uskut there may be observed, on a promontory, an ancient Greek tower, in tolerable good preservation, to which the Tartars have given the name of Tchobankale, which signifies the fort of the shepherds. The coast forms a good-sized bay in front of the village of Uskut, which stands at some distance from the sea in a valley watered by several springs, and filled with vines which produce a wine of a very bad quality. Uskut is well peopled: from the neighbouring heights one may distinctly see to the southward an extent of nearly sixty versts of coast.

About ten versts further is the village of Tuyak, in a warm and agreeable valley near the sea, and most of which is sown with nothing but hemp; but that which is cultivated in the environs of Aluchta always has the preference, while its culture forms the principal means of subsistence amongst the Tartars.

A narrow path, which is steep and bordered by precipices, conducts the traveller to the village of Kitchuk-ozen; which is built in a narrow valley near a high mountain that runs towards the sea, and is called by the Tartars Kntilla. After passing this village you meet with a hillock, called Kara-ul-obo, or the guard's hillock: it derives its name from a piquet of Cossacks which is stationed there. Part of this hillock lately gave way.

A few hours' journey leads the traveller into the valley of Aluchta, which separates the eastern part of the high mountains of the Crimea from those of the west, which we lately passed over.

From the foot of the Tchatyrdagh begins a wooded valley, intersected by several rivulets that run towards Aluchta: this spot is situated on an isolated elevation contiguous to the sea, and in it may still be perceived the vestige of an ancient Greek fortification. Aluchta, at that time the episcopal seat, had a considerable population. At the end of the valley the Tchatyrdagh takes its rise: the view extends to the sea, and the low turf-covered houses, built on the declivity of the coast, seem like the walls of a garden. The Tartars build their houses against the steep sides of the mountains; the front wall is formed entirely of rough hewn stone; and the roof is flat and covered with turf, on which the inhabitants can walk; while in summer they even sleep on it. The inside presents nothing but a spacious hearth, with a chimney to conduct the smoke. The whole of their furniture consists of a coarse kind of carpeting and some cushions. I had a letter for the chief of the village: he was a respectable Tartar, who gave me an excellent dinner, according to the fashion of the country, furnished us with very good horses, and sent his brother to act as our guide. After riding along the sea-shore for some time, we began to ascend a

path which was very narrow and bounded by precipices, the bottom of which was washed by the sea ; in some parts the horses had scarcely room enough to walk, inasmuch that no animals but those which are accustomed to the country can pass it with safety.

The inhabitants of these parts have a few herds of buffaloes ; indeed the prodigious strength of this animal seems necessary to perform so difficult a labour as the cultivation of the soil. The village of Katchouk-lambat has a tolerably convenient harbour, in front of which is the Ayou-dagh, or Bear's Mountain, which is covered with stones, though it here and there contains woods. It is situated in the sea, towards which it is particularly steep, and from which may be seen, on inaccessible rocks, a number of strawberry plants and arbutus.

In a little valley, about four versts from Kutchuk-lambat, appears the pretty village of Parthenik, which is inhabited almost entirely by Greeks ; it contains a great number of gardens and fruit-trees, particularly walnuts, which are uncommonly fine ; while the fertility is increased by a number of streams that pass over the grounds.

After we had continued to ascend till we reached the hamlet of Kurkalet, we crossed the small bank or ridge that unites the Ayou-dagh to the mountains, and discovered the fine valley of Yursaf. At the top of an inaccessible rock, fractured in two parts, and which extends into the sea, we observed some remains of a Genoese fortification. The passage between the two rocks was closed by a wall : there still remain some vestiges of batteries and bastions, together with the foundations of a round tower ; an out-work of masonry descends towards the sea, and a very safe harbour has been made across a shoal, which communicates with the shore by a small and ingeniously constructed mole.

Behind the promontory of Nikita, which stretches towards the sea, is a village of the same name ; and farther on, beyond a heath occasionally interspersed with wood, are two others, called Magaratch and Marssanda. They were formerly inhabited by Greeks, who emigrated from Mariopol ; and their numerous gardens, which are watered by abundant springs, now remain uncultivated. Between the two last-mentioned villages here the ruins of a chapel, which are shaded by old walnut-trees, and beneath which a rivulet takes its course. Hither the traveller repairs to rest, and finds a wooden bowl placed on a projection of the rock, from which he dips water from the spring to slake his thirst ; after which he scrupulously places the vase on the spot from which he took it. This trivial accommodation is a striking, though simple, proof of the hospitality of the Tartars.

After passing the village of Derekoi, the environs of which abound in plants, we descended into the valley of Yalta. This place was formerly occupied by the Greeks; and to judge from the ruins which still remain, it must have been of a considerable size; at present it is only the residence of a few Tartars. Its bay is safe. It is exposed to the south, and though little frequented, a kind of lazaretto is established near it. This fine valley is filled with gardens, and surrounded by heights well covered with woods.

The road soon turns round a mill, and leads from the valley to the summits of the mountains; sometimes it is so steep as to force the traveller to descend with rapidity, and compel him to go far out of his way in order to avoid the dangerous parts. We were obliged, on this account, strictly to follow the young Tartar who acted as our guide: his agility was really astonishing; for he leaped like a goat, without any fear, from one rock to another.

About six versts from Yalta, and quite on the sea-shore, is situated the village of Aoutka, inhabited by Greeks, whose employment is principally in fishing for oysters. Here may be seen the cascades of the Akarsu, which fall upon the top of a rock sixty fathoms in height; a circumstance which I should delight to describe, if I were not diffident of the enthusiasm with which it inspired me.

The chain of mountains continues towards the right, and contains three Tartar villages, called Gaspra, Choris, and Muskor. Several olive and fig-trees, which are dispersed amongst them, indicate the fertility of the soil; but on approaching Alupka, the scene suddenly changes, and the image of chaos appears in all its horror. Whole woods rooted up, rocks heaped upon one another, trees suspended over an abyss by a single root; all give the traveller an idea of general destruction. In one part enormous fragments of stone, proceeding from the fall of a mass of rock on the sea-side, cover an extent of two versts inland; and it is upon and amongst these ruins that a village is established, with gardens and parcels of cultivated land. The Tartars have not even been afraid to build their huts under some of these enormous masses, which still seem ready to fall and crush them: nature, however, which seems otherwise to have treated the country like a step-mother, has not refused it everything. The valley, which is one of the hottest in the whole southern coast, is sheltered from cold winds, and being only exposed towards the south, the heat is concentrated in it throughout the day. Vine-sprouts may be seen shooting round the rocks; while fig-trees, pomegranates, olive and walnut-trees, grow between their fractures; but these trees appeared with a scanty

and decayed foliage, in consequence of the severity of the winter of 1802. A laurel-tree alone seemed to have resisted its attack, whose green and vigorous head shot forth amidst those vast ruins. I was much astonished to hear the word *Daphne* proceed from the mouth of a Tartar; but I found that the laurel being unknown to the Tartars before its transplantation, they have adopted the Greek name.

The high mountain which surrounds the valley of Alupka is the famous Kriométopon (Κριε μετωπον) so well known to the ancient Greek navigators. After clearing the cape called Cro-tis-baron, you perceive the valley of Simeus, in which are great numbers of olive-trees, mixed with abundance of pomegranates and other fruit-trees. The frightful aspect of the rocks, which form perpendicular faces on the land side, and the view of the sea, which extends as far as the horizon, render this valley delightful to the traveller who is pleased with contrasts. We continued to ascend along a road which passed over woody eminences, but was not altogether without danger. The cold began to be felt, clouds rolled under our feet, and seemed like a white sea in motion, which hid from the view the country beneath it.

After a rather tedious journey we arrived at a promontory, behind which is situated the village of Limana: this considerable cape terminates near the sea with an elevated, inaccessible, and lonely rock. On the summit of the mountain is a thick wall, constructed in front of the only practicable part. On the side next to the village the descent is so steep, that, on reaching the bottom with the greatest difficulty, you perceive nothing but a vast side, which it seems equally impossible to climb up or descend from. As this high mountain is to the east of Limana, the rays of the sun fall rather later on it than elsewhere.

The path, which is only a few inches wide, now becomes more dangerous. We travelled incessantly along ravines or dreadful precipices, to the bottom of which the eye could not penetrate; while the path was worn away by a heavy fall of rain, which had rendered it equally difficult both for pedestrians and horsemen. I did not trust myself, without much alarm, to the knowledge and instinct of my horse, though I fortunately arrived unhurt at the village of Kikéneis. Here the rocky front which rises from the mountains becomes lower, after having continued, without interruption, for the space of twenty-two versts. From time to time large fragments fall off and roll as far as the sea.

On approaching Kutchukoy, I saw a part of the mountain which had fallen in the preceding year as far as the shore, and at a short distance from the spot where the great overthrow occurred in 1784. I presume that this disruption succeeded the

shock of an earthquake which was felt at the same period; but I could not obtain any account of the accident: the event was unknown even to Pallas. I shall, however, quote his own words.

“ From the front of the rock the coast was a series of ravines, through one of which ran a rivulet. The 10th February, the surface of the soil began to crack and separate; and the same day the rivulet, which turned two Tartar mills, was lost in the crevices. Two days after the superficies of the soil had continued to break, and the apprehension of danger had caused the Tartars to leave their habitations with their cattle and effects, the whole of the space between the ravines abovementioned, from the elevated front of the rock, as far as the sea, fell in at midnight, with a frightful noise, to the extent of nearly two versts in length, and from 350 to 500 fathoms in width. This eruption, which continued till the 28th of February, made a ditch ten fathoms in depth, in which remained one large and two small parallel banks of the solid rock: in proportion as one part of the steep side became detached from the rock, the whole mass pressed in the same proportion on its base, and the shore advanced from that time into the sea, in a circumference of from sixty to eighty toises. In the night of the 28th, two slight shocks of an earthquake were felt, after which the water of the rivulet, which had disappeared, began to flow again at the superficies, but ran in a different direction; after forming several lakes and marshy places along the new shore, besides the two mills lately mentioned, this fall buried in its ruins eight houses, and destroyed whole fields and gardens.”

The inhabitants of Kutchukoy have already forgotten these disasters, and do not even think of those which now seem to threaten them.

We crossed the village Pechatka to arrive at that of Foros, situated at the foot of the mountain, on the other side of which is the valley of Baïdari. A dangerous and winding path leads to this steep and woody side. After climbing, with difficulty, for a long time, we discovered, on looking behind us, the sea, above which we found ourselves at an extraordinary height. The horses, accustomed to these paths, pass from one rock to another with such sagacity as to inspire confidence. Indeed it would neither be easy nor prudent to turn them from their ordinary route. After taking as much time to descend as we had employed in travelling upwards, we perceived the so-much extolled valley of Baïdari: this charming spot, which is surrounded by high mountains, abundantly covered with wood, is from fifteen to sixteen versts in length, by eight or ten in breadth.

Several large meadows, through which runs a pretty rivulet,

are occasionally interrupted by small elevations, covered with villages, and fine woods and gardens. Great numbers of flocks are reared in the valley, and give animation to a delightful scene, which seems the residence of peace and happiness.

We next ascended a very high rock, which separates Baïdari from the small valley of Varnutka: the road which leads to Balaclava was made for the Empress Catharine II. at the time of her journey to the Crimea. The soil being a continued rock, it required infinite difficulty to make it passable. After a journey of some hours, we reached Balaclava, at which terminates the chain of the high mountains of the southern coasts.

CHAP. III.

VOLCANOS.—EARTHQUAKES.—DISRUPTIONS.—EJECTIONS OF MUD.—QUALITIES OF THE SOIL.—RIVERS.—SALINE LAKES, &c.

M. Hablitz, in his description of Taurida, and several authors who have since written, have asserted, that the soil of the Crimea proves it to contain exhausted volcanos, which might have subverted the whole peninsula. The mountains afford no indications of craters, nor do they contain any visible trace of extinct volcanos. Some thick beds of lava, which are found at Balaclava, and near Yursuf, doubtless have proceeded from the ballast of the Genoese vessels. The sea-shore near the mountain of Karadagh, is covered with pebbles of green jasper, sometimes veined with red, and chalcedony; this, indeed, is the only stone in all the Crimea which can be adduced in support of the opinion of M. Hablitz.

Earthquakes seldom happen in the Crimea; nevertheless, the almost perpendicular inclination of a bed of stone, which forms part of the Altchakaya, can only be attributed to a central overthrow. M. Pallas found in this bed a lump of blackish petrified wood: it was flat and fractured, and the apertures were filled with spath. The different layers of this stratum consist of free-stone blocks, irregularly placed one above the other. The junctures, and even the level parts, are filled and covered with a matter, the principle of which appears to be mud and schistous sand. Sometimes belemnites are found in this mass, broken, and with their fragments again partly united; large flat impressions of ammonites, of the size of one's hand; and St. James's shells, similar to those that are found on the shores of the Black Sea. It cannot be doubted that these stones have come from a horizontal bed, which was

formerly beneath the sea, and that the petrified wood alluded has been flattened in this position.

As to the great disruptions of rocks, they have been caused by the springs, which have undermined the soft strata on which they were supported, or by the ice and streams of rain-water, which, by gradually effecting a passage through, and enlarging their chasms, have at length detached vast masses.

Towards the north, about a verst from Yenikalé, some pools of saline water are found on the tops of hillocks; it seems to boil on issuing from the earth, and its surface is covered with a quantity of petroleum.

Between Kertch and Yenikalé, there may often be seen openings formed, without doubt, by ancient eruptions of mud; and near these are several exsiccated gulphs, as well as others, which sometimes in summer throw out soft mud and bubbles; but this phenomenon occurs most frequently in the isle of Taman. Near these gulphs the ground is elastic, and full of chasms and crevices: those which are still in action expand a certain degree of heat through the atmosphere which surrounds them, though the matter which they eject seems cold to the touch.

On the 5th of September, 1799, after a subterraneous noise, accompanied with terrific thunder, there was seen to rise from the bottom of the sea of Azof, opposite Temruk, an island, about 100 fathoms in circumference: from its centre a quantity of mud appeared to issue, and a volcanic eruption suddenly covered it with fire and smoke. In the following year this island totally disappeared; but it is not known whether it was dissolved by the sea, or sunk again to the bottom.

M. Pallas, in his journey through the southern provinces of the Russian empire, has given an interesting detail of this phenomenon, to which he adds his opinion relative to these volcanos of slime or mud, and their natural causes*.

* As M. Reuilly says nothing farther on this interesting subject, the Editor has thought proper to subjoin, in the following note, the account of that wonderful event, as described by M. Pallas himself. It will doubtless be new to the majority of readers.

Speaking of the island which rose from the sea, he says, "on the 5th of September, 1799, after having heard at sun-rise, in the sea of Azof opposite to Temruk, and a hundred and fifty fathoms from the shore, a subterraneous rumbling, accompanied with dreadful thunder, the surprise and alarm of the spectators were considerably augmented on observing, after an explosion similar to a cannon shot, an isle like a great sepulchral hillock, rising from the bottom of the sea, which at that part was from five to six fathoms deep. This isle ascended above the level of the sea, and appeared to be nearly a hundred fathoms in circumference: it seemed to rise, split, and eject mud and stones, till an eruption of fire and smoke had covered the whole place. The time required by Nature for effecting this change

The quality of the soil, which is in general marly, is not every where alike. That of the plain consists of a sandy clay and decomposed earth. Its fertility depends upon its mixture with this earth and upon its humidity. That of the vallies, manured with lime and chalk, is composed of clay and pebbles, under a thick stratum of mould; and its fertility is increased by the streams which descend from the

was two hours, and the sea was so impetuous on those days, that no one could trust himself on the element in a vessel, for the purpose of visiting the isle, which appeared to have an elevation of two fathoms above the waves, and was quite black, from the disgorgement of mud that had taken place. The same day, at seven o'clock in the evening, two strong shocks of an earthquake were felt at Ekaterinodar, which is two hundred versts distance from hence. Subsequent accounts respecting this isle, concur in describing it to be seventy-two fathoms in length, by forty-eight in breadth, with an elevation of seven feet above the level of the sea.

"My occupations of every kind, together with the fever with which I was afflicted at that time, prevented me from making a journey to Taman, to observe this remarkable phenomenon. The following year I learned that this isle had been either dissolved by the waves, or had again sunk, no traces of it being then perceptible at the surface."

The following account, by Professor Pallas, contains a new and interesting theory of the volcanos of mud and slime peculiar to the Crimea.—
"In the month of March 1791, Lieutenant Constantine Lintvaref, inspector of the quarantine at Taman, wrote that on the 27th of February, at half past eight in the morning, the hillock on the point of land to the north, situated only twelve versts from Taman, in a diagonal direction across the gulph, but sixty by a circuitous course over land, had just exhibited the following extraordinary events. At first a rumbling was heard in the air, which was succeeded by a violent gust of wind, that lasted only a minute; next, a noise was heard similar to thunder, which came from the hillock, and immediately afterwards a column of thick and black smoke issued from the middle of its summit. In the space of a minute, there arose another of violent fire, which at a distance appeared to be fifty feet in height, and thirty in circumference. This flame lasted from half past eight till ten minutes before ten, when a messenger who had been sent to the part at the time that the noise, fire, and smoke seemed to decrease, returned, and reported that an aperture had been formed on the hillock, the size of which could not be ascertained, because the successive eruptions, accompanied by flames and smoke, emitted a hot mud, which spread in every direction, and rendered an approach impracticable. The eruption was neither preceded nor followed by any shock of an earthquake.

"It appears from the different accounts of ocular witnesses, who observed this phenomenon both at Taman and Yenikale, and visited the mountain after its eruption, that the explosion resembled the rumbling of thunder, and the report did not last longer than that of a thunder-clap. A noise and hissing were also heard in the air at Yenikale, both previous and subsequent to the explosion. At the instant of the report, there issued a white vapour, which was followed by a smoke as black as soot, and this was penetrated by a column of fire, with flames of a bright-red and pale-yellow colour in the form of an expanded sheaf, and which, notwithstanding a very strong wind which blew at the time, rose to a perpendicular height twice as great as that of a mountain. This column of fire disappeared in twenty-five minutes, but the black smoke lasted four or five hours, and spread forth.

neighbouring heights. On the mountains, this soil is strongly mixed with sand and pebbles; but wheat and vines succeed well upon it. The places that lie near the banks of the rivers are, in general, the best both for agriculture and pasturage; but the most famous are those of the Alma. This little river runs through an agreeable country; indeed the vallies which are wa-

thick and heavy clouds over both sides. By the following day, it had, however, entirely disappeared.

“When the first explosion took place, the mountain propelled with violence into the air several portions of mud, and vomited quantities of a similar substance, in every direction around it, to the distance of at least a verst. By displacing a portion of vegetable earth, to the extent of a fathom, which was at that time frozen, the great mass of mud made its way from the gulph; first it ran with rapidity, but afterwards slower, covering all parts of the mountain, without having any sensible degree of heat, according to the report of many respectable persons, who arrived on horseback to the place a few hours after the eruption; yet the mud then continued to emit a strong smoke through a very cold air. But some Cossacks, who had been sent there, made a contrary report, and insisted that the mud was hot at the time of its efflux. A continual hissing and boiling were heard in the mountain till night; and till the third day, the mud was sometimes thrown out to the height of ten or twelve feet. At a subsequent period the mountain made a cracking noise, and again began to throw out mud in the air, but without exhibiting an appearance of fire, even during the night. In the month of March, a surveyor was sent to Taman, to make a plan of the Kuku-oho, and he found the first aperture that had been formed at the summit of the hillock, to be ten or twelve fathoms wide, while the principal gulph was an arshine and a half in diameter. At the same time he observed to issue at intervals, some smoke and mud, containing a portion of petroleum, which tends to strengthen the opinion, which was then started, respecting the mud, as it was found to be very bituminous. The muddy ejections were at that time of the same extent as I found them in the following summer. For a length of time the deep, soft, and tenacious mud prevented an approach to the point of the mountain, but a long-continued dry season having desiccated and even hardened the whole mass, it may now be passed over, and examined in every direction. Its composition, when I visited the hillock, was as follows:—The summit was surrounded by a mass of mud, which might be estimated at upwards of 100,000 cubic fathoms. This mass, which covered the hillock in every direction, but in a more extensive manner to the south and west, had overflowed in several unequal torrents, which were in some places two or three arshines thick, and resembled a fine paste with a thick border. The heap to the north-east, is the largest and thickest, it is very wide at top, and extends, as does the narrowest stream, to the west and south-west, even into the plain at the foot of the mountain. The former is 400 fathoms long, and the latter more than 300. Three others, in a direction almost parallel to the north-west, and a fourth extending to the south, are narrower, and do not descend to so great a length. Lastly, towards the east, the mass forms a prolonged circle, because the declivity of the mountain on this side presents a sort of ridge, or projection. On all the streams of this mud, but particularly at its margin, there may be seen small lumps, which have been propelled one upon the other by the pressure of the liquid mud, as the crust of the mass became dry; and by surrounding some small elevations, which it met with in two or three parts,

tered by it, are delightful. It is here that the numerous pasturages are situated on which the khans of the Crimea used to breed their famous horses. The fine verdant plains, shaded by poplars and lime-trees, and covered with huts inhabited by the Tatars, together with the numerous flocks which graze on the neighbouring hills, and the springs which issue from the rocks, all give an exact idea of the Arcadia described by the poets.

of its passage, it has formed little islands. At the summit of the mountain around the gulf which ejected this enormous mass from the bowels of the earth, it may be observed in thicker heaps, while on one side may be seen a semicircular clod, nearly a fathom in length by two aishmes in thickness, composed of an old vegetable argillaceous earth, of a deeper yellow than the fresh mud. This clod, which covered the gulph, was upset and partly buried in the mud. It also appears, that on the south-west side, in the direction of which the summit of the mountain is more inclined, and as it were furrowed, as much more liquid mud overflowed, which has left behind it a deep trace, similar to that of a rivulet, of the width of about twelve paces: it has several interruptions, and finally disappears at the bottom in the thick stratum of stronger mud, when the more desiccated matter is formed into several heaps that lie upon each other.

"I found beneath the mud, in these environs, some crystals of cuboidal pyrites, partly attached to the marl, and partly loose in shining laminae without alteration. I likewise observed this same kind of pyrites in the clefts of marly stone, a proof that the pyrites themselves had been torn from some upper strata, on which the fire had not acted. Even the fluxes of the mud, the largest of which was from 60 to 100 fathoms wide, were dry only at the superficies, in consequence of becoming covered with a crust; but one could not tread upon it with safety, for it had separated in many places; and on taking up a lump, we found the undermost part to be soft and fat, like moistened clay. The superficies of this mud was rough and lumpy, so that it was as painful to walk over it as it is to proceed on strongly frozen dirt.

"The whole of this prodigious mass, which possesses the greatest uniformity, resembles a pinguid clay, of a blue ash-colour, and interspersed with points of sparkling mica. On the application of moisture, it admits of being kneaded, but when dried, it cracks like the argillaceous mud on the highways, in unequal parts, often of the width of three fingers, and may be crumbled, as it retains a degree of solidity only when in large lumps. On the superficies of the mud I remarked no particles of vitriol; and I saw, in a few places only, some parts covered with an efflorescence of salt, which made a slight effervescence with the acids. All the fragments of stone scattered throughout this mass, and which did not form the two-thousandth part of the whole, were mostly small, the largest not exceeding the size of a closed hand; some were recently broken, and others rather polished. they principally consisted of twenty-one species, without foreign bodies, or degradation, and here and there of a reddish colour, or as if burned.

"These species comprised different kinds of schistons, as calcareous, argillaceous, marly, &c. and possessed the qualities peculiar to each.

"When the gulph vomited this enormous mass, it was covered with a dry and very hard crust of the same mud, over which one could pass. Judging of its size from its depth, its diameter must have been twelve feet, Paris measure. By the side of it, in the mud, we saw several traces of small

Amongst the rivulets which run to the north through the valleys and into the plain, several receive the name of rivers; some of them run towards the north-east towards the Sivache, and the others to the north-west, into the Black Sea. Amongst the former, the principal are the Salghir, the Great and Little Carasu, which join to it at about twenty versts from its mouth; and also the Bechterok, Suyu, and Burultz, which empty themselves into the Salghir; the three Indales, or Andales, the Subache, and the Eastern Bulganak, all of which fall into the Sivache. Amongst the small rivers which empty themselves into the Black Sea, the principal are the Alma, the Catcha, the Belbek, and the Cabarda.

With respect to the Salghir, its sources are very remarkable,

lava of the width of an arshine, which the more fluid matter had probably made at a later period. On placing the ear down in the direction of the large gulph, we could distinctly hear a noise similar to boiling and cracking, like that of a large covered cauldron, and which, when I was upon the hillock, was still perceptible, notwithstanding the rumbling of an approaching storm. It appears to me very probable, that a stratum of stone-coal, or bituminous schistus, burns at a considerable depth beneath the isle of Taman, as well as under a part of the peninsula of Kertsh; that the sea, or the water of its gulphs, having found the means of penetrating the cavities occasioned in several parts from the eruptions of this concentrated focus, there must have resulted a mass of vapours, or gas, of several kinds, which being once introduced, have passed, by their elasticity, through the clefts of the upper layers, the old gulphs, and, in short, every part at which they found the least resistance, and effected an outlet at the top with a cracking, occasioning at the period of fresh muddy eruptions, the result of which I have treated, as well as the combustion of inflammable gas, which was of short duration, from its being speedily condensed by the external air. As soon as the force of the vapours of the fiery stratum ceased to act upon that above it, because the vapours themselves had found an outlet, the torn and perforated beds of this stratum would naturally sink, and by their pressure would afford, by means of the new opening, at first a rapid, and afterwards a slower passage, to the mud, originating from the ashes of the burned strata, and the sea-water that had gained an admission. Hence arises that saline principle which is found in this always swollen mud; and the same arguments will account for the appearance of the roots of reeds, or rushes, which the sea, on introducing itself in the subterraneous space, had brought with it, and mixed with the mud; and, lastly, we may thus account for those fragments of several species of stones, the strata of which were probably lying one upon another, and were perforated and broken by the vapours. The singularity of meeting with these rents or fractures several times on the hillocks, where the resistance naturally appeared more considerable than on the plain, may be attributed to the probability that these hillocks, having perhaps been entirely formed by more ancient eruptions, and in consequence having still internally the focus of a gulph, the vapours could there more easily find an outlet. At least it appears that this is the case beyond a doubt, with respect to the gulph of Kuku-obo, and that of Kull-tepe; and, perhaps, even the insensible sinking of the strata of the isle of Taman is only owing to the gulphs and the interior eruptions caused by the sea, which have thus filled the whole island with fractures and divisions."

and I had heard so much about them, that I was desirous to see them. For this purpose I proceeded to Sultan Mahmouth, the residence of Batyr-Aga, a rich Myrza, to whom I had letters of introduction: his house is surrounded by beautiful orchards, through which winds a branch of the Salghir. The notes of thousands of birds, added to the murmuring of the waters, produced a charming concert. These birds all seemed to build their nests round the house; and in the middle of the apartment, where Batyr-Aga received us, was a nest of swallows, to which the cock and hen passed and repassed without the least alarm at our presence. On expressing my surprise at seeing them so tame, my host answered, "they know that I do not wish to hurt them, and every year they punctually return to the same nest; I am attached to this spot as well as the birds. This garden is the result of my own labour; I planted the trees that you see, and this water has been conveyed hither under my direction." Batyr-Aga, at the time of my visit, was sixty years of age. Several Tartars of the environs came to take leave of him while I was present; which they did by making a low bow, kissing the palm of the hand, and then touching the head with it.

We had scarcely reached Sultan Mahmouth when it began to pour with rain; it was the first shower that had fallen in this country during the year, and our host was polite enough to attribute it to our arrival. After dinner, he gave us excellent horses and a guide to conduct us to the sources of the Salghir.

Near the village of Aian, at the bottom of an enormous ravine, surrounded by mountains of calcareous stone, we saw a spacious grotto, from which the springs of the Salghir issued. The light penetrates into this grotto through fissures in the rocks, and exhibits a gulph, the edges of which form nearly a right angle, and do not permit one to approach in safety to sound it. I shuddered when I saw the Tartar, who acted as our guide, walk very unconcerned round the brink of this abyss; for if his foot had slipped, he would have perished, without the possibility of obtaining assistance.

To return to the small rivers which were lately specified: the mountains which give rise to them are too near the sea to enable them to be of a considerable size; and though they are increased in winter by the falls of rain and the melting of the snow, they are in summer scarcely more than little streams running over a wide bed of stones, while the traveller passes over them almost with dry shoes, though a few days before they were strong enough to carry him away.

Before I speak of the saline lakes, I shall say a few words on their formation; and shall refer the reader for additional part.

culars to the travels of Pallas lately quoted. They are all separated from the sea-coast by a bar of low and narrow land, composed of broken shelves and gravel. To judge of them from their shape, these lakes seem to have been creeks, which have been inclosed by the masses of gravel, stone, and mud, thrown up by the violence of storms. The evaporation of the water is sufficient to crystalize the salt contained in that which has been left by the sea. Some of these lakes probably also receive saline springs, though these are not indicated by any particular motion or current at the surface of the water.

The salt lakes of Perecop are the richest and most important ; but particularly those known by the names of Staroé-oséro (the Old Lake), and Krasnoé-oséro (the Red Lake); the former, which is eighteen versts from Perecop, is oblong, and about fifteen or sixteen versts in circumference. The latter, which is nearly two versts from the other, is likewise oblong, and its circumference may be about twenty-four versts. The lakes near Jenitché, Koslof, Kertch, and Caffa, are likewise abundantly furnished with salt. Near Koslof is a lake which has received the name of Saak, and to which is attributed the virtue of curing rheumatic pains and other chronic diseases. Persons afflicted with these complaints resort to it in summer, and bury themselves up to the neck in the mud, by which they often obtain very great relief.

The salt is found from the middle of June till August ; during which time the heat causes the water of the lakes to evaporate, and accelerates the condensation of the saline substance. The particles of salt that are formed are skimmed off with wooden shovels. The shallowness of the river, and the firm nature of the soil, are sufficient to admit carts, drawn by oxen, into the middle of the lakes, in which position they are loaded with the salt. When the season is favourable, that is to say, when there have not been heavy falls of rain, the salt is so abundant, that they only take a third or fourth part of it : it serves for the supply of a part of Poland, White Russia, New Russia, the Ukraine, and several neighbouring governments, to which it is conveyed by numerous carriages, drawn by oxen. There is also exported a considerable quantity to Anatolia and Constantinople.

There are no considerable forests in the Crimea ; the only ones to be found extend along the mountains of the southern coast, and the parts where most large trees grow are between Balaclava and Yalta, around the base of the Tchatyrdagh, and in the deep ravines which run towards Uskut ; the escarpments of rock, in the circle of Yalta and thereabouts, produce, on the sea-side, a few woods, which may be reckoned amongst high-grown forests ; but the more elevated places are only co-

vered with copses or collections of shrubs. In the vallies near the high mountains, there may be found enormous trunks of oak, beech, and elms, which are invaluable for ship-building.

Amongst the forest-trees of the Crimea may be reckoned the pine, the linden-tree, the maple, the alder, two species of oak, the elm, the ash, several varieties of poplar, and various species of shrubs.

Grass-hoppers are numerous in the Crimea, besides the large kinds, or those of passage, of which the Crimea has always shared the plague with a part of Africa and Asia. There has of late years introduced itself the little grass-hopper, with rose-coloured wings, which naturalists call *Gryllus Italicus*. Notwithstanding the rigour of the winter of 1799 and 1800, and the north winds, which forced by their violence a great quantity of these insects into the Black Sea, they have, nevertheless, increased to a dreadful extent. Numerous swarms of them have deprived of their verdure the trees and plants, particularly the vine, insomuch that the parts they attack seem as if consumed by fire. They deposit their eggs in the ground, and the next season a new race of these destroyers appears. The number of starlings and other birds which are enemies to this insect, having diminished in the Crimea, there is little hope of seeing them destroyed for several years, unless Nature herself should reduce their numbers.

The inhabitant of the Crimea is firmly convinced, that the winters have been longer and more severe in this country since its conquest by the Russians. The rigour of those which immediately followed the acquisition of that country, doubtless contributed to give them such an opinion: the alteration of the climate, however, may have been caused by the cutting down of the hedges, woods, and gardens, which was done by the Russian troops, and even by the Tartars themselves, so that the cold winds from the north and east had a free passage.

The temperature of the Crimea is in general very variable: the winters are sometimes so mild, that the frost does not last longer than four or five days, and rarely causes Reaumur's thermometer to fall below 8 degrees. Such was the winter of 1795 and 1796, when spring-flowers were in full blow on the 6th of February. Others, on the contrary, are long and rigorous; such were those of 1798, 1799, 1800, 1802, and 1803, when, in January, and a great part of February, the thermometer was at 15 and 20 degrees. Snow, however, seldom falls in these regions, and never, during a whole winter, so as to cover the ground to any depth. The other seasons, particularly summer, afford similar variations.

The spring generally begins in the month of March, and lasts till the end of May: this is the most agreeable and healthy season. Nature appears dressed in her most beautiful colours, and a new source of pleasure may be said to rise almost at every step. In the month of June, the very hot weather commences, and lasts till the end of August; the verdure then disappears, and the springs, rivulets, and fountains, are dried up. The thermometer of Reaumur, even in the shade, often rises to 30 or 31 degrees: the heat, however, is happily modified by the sea-breezes, which set in at ten at noon, and blow till six in the evening; while a land-wind succeeds in the night. Rain and dew are very unusual in this season. A hard winter is often followed by a mild and rainy summer; for the prolonged resting of the snow on the mountains, and the conveyance of ice from the Sea of Azof, keep the air cool, and furnish a constant current of it till the end of May. The barometer varies but little in ordinary summers, and a long continuance of serene weather is then expected.

From the beginning of August, the nights become mild, and the sun's heat diminishes in day-time. The months of October and September are fine, the temperature is moderate, and agreeable weather prevails till the middle of November. At the end of this month the cold days begin, accompanied with slight frosts, and snow falls on the high mountains. The autumn is the most dangerous season in the Crimea, on account of intermittent and remittent fevers, the relapses of which occasion chronic and often fatal diseases, through the want of proper diet, as well as from negligence or bad treatment. The first cause of these diseases is bile, which is engendered by the hot season, and the inevitable influence of the first attacks of cold; the natural consequence of the freshness of the nights and of the winds which blow after the end of July.

The winter is seldom long and rigorous. In December the temperature is variable, and after four or five days of frost, fine weather often returns, and continues till January. The winds change continually, as does the barometer, and a new moon generally brings either fine weather or storms. The greatest degree of cold generally occurs in February; but a difference of climate happens in the Crimea, according to the situation of the places. There is felt in the plains an excess both of heat and cold; but rains are less frequent there in summer, because the barrenness of the steppes, and the violent winds that pass over them, prevent the moist air from accumulating, and resolving itself into rain.

In the mountainous parts, a great difference prevails between

the places towards the north, and those that lie along the southern shore; notwithstanding the small distance by which they are separated: often a heavy and abundant shower falls on one side of the chain of mountains, while on the other, the hot and clear weather remains unaltered; so that a journey of a few hours conveys a traveller from the scorching heat of July to the cold temperature of March.

The following is the division of the seasons among the Tartars. The spring begins on St. George's day, which is the 23d of April, and a solemn festival amongst those people, and lasts till the 22d of June. Their long summer of forty days, which follows, ends on the 1st of August. This month does not form a part of any season, till the 25th, on which day their autumn begins, and terminates in sixty-one days, or the 26th of October. By this period all the harvests of corn, grapes, &c. are finished, and the Tartars make bargains for the sale of their produce, and obtain new leases: the thirty-six days which follow, are the fore-runners of their great winter, which begins on the 1st of December, and lasts sixty-six days, or till the 4th of February. To the remaining twenty-four of this month they give the name of Gudchuk-an. The other fifty-three days, from the 1st of March to the 23d of April, form their grand festival, or Kédrelès, which ends on St. George's day; and this period does not make a part of any season. It is remarked at this period, by the Tartars, that there are three cold epochs: they are tolerably accurate in their observation, and distinguish these variations of cold, by the appellations of the winter of the old woman, that of the swallows, and that of the lapwings.

Nature has not refused the Crimea any of the advantages that may be derived from its position; game is rather scarce in that country, though the forests afford a retreat to great numbers of goats, hares, and deer. The meadows, and even the mountains, all furnish excellent pasturage. The numerous orchards abound in delicious fruits; and the vineyards produce very good wine. Plants are as various in the Crimea as the districts which compose it are by their situation, the qualities of their soil, and the nature of the air. This fertility is not owing entirely to the goodness of the land, but also to the happy temperature of the climate, which facilitates the growth of several trees and shrubs, which are peculiar to hot countries. In the orchards grow black and other cherry-trees, peaches, apricots, almonds, mulberry and other walnut-trees, quinces, service-trees, cornel-trees, medlars and filberts. Abandoned, as one may say, to the care of Nature, they yet afford abundance of fruit of a good quality, so that, by a careful cultivation, they

might, in a few years, increase their success ; and a great part of the productions of distant countries might be advantageously incorporated amongst them. In the kitchen-gardens the Tartars cultivate melons, cucumbers, gourds, cabbages, carrots, red and white beet-root, beans, peas, garlic, and a quantity of onions.

Besides the abundance of useful culinary vegetables produced in the Crimea, Nature has been equally liberal in granting it plenty of medicinal and dying substances, as well as some which are excellent for tanning.

Besides which, rye, barley, and oats, as well as millet and maize, which is every where cultivated, the Crimea possesses a number of useful objects which are peculiar to several places. There is found in profusion, on the plains of Caffa and Kertch, the *Atripex laciniata*, which, when burnt, affords excellent soda. In the environs of Aluchta and Uskut, the vallies abound with hemp and flax of the best quality ; and Virginia tobacco is cultivated with great success. Madder grows in the low grounds about Inkerman, and woad and saffron are collected on the mountains and in the vallies of the southern coast. Between Yalta and Aluchta you meet with the *Agnus castus*, in Russia called the wild pear-tree, in consequence of the acid taste of the fruit resembling that of the pear ; and in the woods of Yalta are numerous shrubs of sumach, or the vinegar-tree. The turpentine tree grows in the gardens near Sudagh, along the Alma, and spontaneously in the southern vallies. The diospiros, or *Lotus* of Linnaeus, appears in the gardens between Balaclava and Aluchta ; while the arbutus springs up from the chasms of the steepest rocks. Near Derekoi, are the only two chesnut-trees in the Crimea : the vallies of Aluchta, as if proud of their laurels, divide with some others the possession of the olive, walnut, pomegranate, and fig-trees. The clayey mountains of Sudagh are covered with caper-trees ; while in the vallies, the vine, sustained by propping or resting against trees, affords red and white wines of an excellent quality.

The animal kingdom is not very abundant in the Crimea. Amongst the tame or fallow beasts, and marine animals, are goats, deer, wolves, foxes, badgers, civet-cats, and hares ; while the Black Sea, and that of Azof, abound in porpoises and sea-calves.

The domestic animals are dromedaries, horses, buffaloes, oxen, cows, goats, several species of sheep, and a large kind of greyhounds, which are much esteemed for the chace. I have got one of these animals, which was presented to me by Atay-Mirza : it is one of the most beautiful I ever saw.

The Crimea does not contain a great variety of birds ;

amongst them, however, are the Alpine, and Egyptian vultures, the goshawk of passage, the kite, magpie, the blackbird, the partridge, the woodcock, the swallow, the thrush, the quail, the lark, the nightingale, the wren, the goldfinch, the tit, and the sparrow. There are likewise quantities of bustards in all the plains. The heron is found near the rivers, as are wild ducks and other water-fowl on the sea-shore. Several varieties of birds of passage also appear in the Crimea at different periods.

The fresh waters of this country contain a small species of barbel, as well as eels and excellent trout. The sea that environs the peninsula abounds in fish, of which several species are yet unknown to the inhabitants, for want of proper instruments to catch them; so that the people have hitherto not much employed themselves in this branch of economy.

The principal fish are sturgeon, mullet, mackarel, sardinias, pilchards, and several other species not generally known. One particular kind of sea-fish is a sort of burt or bret, which is of a considerable size, and is caught in the Black Sea and that of Azof. The testaceous fish in the rivers are lobsters; in the sea are found crabs, craw-fish, oysters, muscles, cockles, periwinkles, &c.

Reptiles are not numerous in the Crimea. A few serpents are found on the mountains, of the species called *Coluber jaculator*; but the asp and viper are very rare. There are several species of lizards and frogs, as well as fresh-water turtle.

The Crimea does not contain a great variety of insects. The bee is alone worthy of mention, as the inhabitants have numerous swarms. The hurtful insects are the tarantula, the scorpion, and the scolopendra.

The air of the Crimea is generally wholesome, being pure, dry, and light; all the places are sufficiently elevated above the level of the sea, in consequence of which there are no marshes of stagnant water; while the terraqueous vapours are purified and dissipated by the continual winds. Nevertheless, some parts of this country are supposed to be unhealthy. The only spots, however, which in reality are so, are the moist vallies that are covered with wood, like that of Catcha, or Katslia; the marshes of Tacklik, to the east of Caffa; the environs of the sources of the Great Cara-sou, and particularly the low grounds near Inkerman. As to the canton of Sivache, the mephitic exhalations which rise there, are considered at Perecop as an antidote to intermittent and remittent fevers.

The mountainous districts are the most healthy, on account of their exposure, and the purity of their waters. The cantons of Koslof and Kertch are preferred to all others.

In the plains there is a general scarcity of water, in consequence of the nature of the soil, which being flat and even, admits of the passage of the clouds and vapours towards the sea. The nakedness of the land also becomes a reason of its dryness, because the air which covers it being easily rarified, causes the clouds to rise. Storms are very rare, as the clouds are in general attracted by the high mountains; when, however, they do occur, they are terrible, though of short duration, and are almost always followed by violent falls of hail and rain.

In the plain, the water of wells is often brackish, sometimes insipid, and contains, according to the nature of the soil, more or less saline particles. That of the small rivers and rivulets, is generally thick, and has a bad taste, which arises from the muddy bottoms, together with the too great equality of the land, that prevents it from running freely, and renders it almost stagnant. The rivers are deep or shallow, according to the seasons. In the hot months of summer they are almost dried up; but in spring and autumn they have a strong current: their banks are in some parts stoney, and in others they consist of clay to a great extent. The heavy rains occasion frequent overflowings: at such times the water is brackish, but does not contain any hurtful particles, and on the whole is pure and agreeable. The Salghir, however, and a few of the rivulets, always hold some tartarous principles. The cantons of Koslof and Kertch are famous for the salubrity of their water.

The winds from the north and north-east may be considered as the most regular, as they pass over smooth plains: where they meet with no obstacle to their passage, they blow always with impetuosity, and carry with them snow and frost in winter; while in summer, by blowing in the same direction, they serve to refresh and purify the air, and may be regarded as a particular benefit of nature. All the other winds change their force and direction so often, that they may be called inconstant: some of them have many distinctive qualities, except those from the north-west, which are often impetuous, particularly in autumn. The sky then becomes disturbed, and a singular degree of heat is spread through the atmosphere, which increases as long as the wind lasts. Another of its qualities is its extreme dryness; in fact, it has all those which are peculiar to the dangerous hot winds of Egypt and other parts of Asia; but the degree of heat which this wind occasions is not so considerable in the Crimea, nor are its consequences so fatal: this amelioration probably proceeds from the passage of the wind across the Black Sea.

What is still more worthy of observation is, a variable kind of wind, peculiar to the district of Balaclava, and other parts of the southern coast. Like the sea-breezes, it begins with violence, and ceases in a short time. It most frequently occurs after sunset, and nevertheless produces a remarkable heat, with a strong smell in the air: it generally blows from the south. M. Pallas thinks it is produced by the sulphureous vapours of inflammable substances which are concealed in the abysses near the sea.

CHAP. V.

POLITICAL STATE OF THE CRIMEA.—SUMMARY OF ITS HISTORY FROM THE TIME OF ITS CONQUEST BY THE RUSSIANS.

FOR the space of 2300 years the Don has formed the recognised boundary between Europe and Asia; and the vast country through which it runs, has in every age been the scite of the most sanguinary wars. The people of the east having become too numerous and too indolent to increase the productions necessary for their subsistence, gradually extended themselves to the westward, in search of new establishments.

On meeting to the right with parts intersected by forests, lakes, and marshes, while to the left was the Black Sea, they advanced in crowds towards the countries watered by the Don. One horde was soon followed by another in the precarious possession of those meadows, so often covered with blood, and the conquerors were expelled in their turn by new colonists, who passed the river in the same direction. Such was the ancient state of the plains contiguous to the Crimea.

According to M. Sestrenevich, the Tauridans, or aborigines of the mountainous part of Taurida, were the first inhabitants of the Crimea; and about 1700 years before our æra, an Amazonian queen led her warriors beyond the Tanais, the ancient name of the Don, and instituted in Taurida sacrifices in honour of Mars and Diana.

Almost all authors, however, agree, that the Cimmerians or Cimbrians were the most ancient inhabitants of the Crimea. They were a part of the wandering Celts, who resided in Europe between the Pontus Euxinus and the Baltic. The Scythians, expelled from the north of Persia by Ninus, king of Assyria, took possession of all the country which bears their name; but they could not entirely drive the Cimmerians from their territory; for these people, after resigning to them the flat country, took refuge on the neighbouring mountains, and assumed the name of Taurinians, or Tauridans. Hence the Greeks used to call Tauro-Scythians those who inhabit the tongue of land com-

prised between the gulph of Carcinites and the mouth of the Boristhenes: they also called those who were in the Crimea by the same name.

The establishments of the Greeks in the Crimea, were as early as the sixth century before the Christian æra. The Milesians built there Ponticapeum, or Bosphorus, which is now Kertsh, and Theodosia, now Caffa. The Heracleots of the Euxine, sailed towards those places in conjunction with the Delians of the northern coasts of Asia Minor, and built Cherson on the territory of the Taurinians. The commerce of the Greeks with that country soon became very flourishing.

The invasion of Darius may be considered as the period of the foundation of foreign colonies in the Crimea. The inhabitants of Asia Minor, subjects of his Persian majesty, who composed his naval army, had sufficient time to examine the coasts of the Black Sea, and formed the design of establishing themselves on such points as appeared to them most advantageous.

In the year 480 before the vulgar æra, the Archæ-Anaktides founded at Bosphorus, and in some other towns towards the mouths of the Kuban, a monarchical state, the throne of which passed 40 years afterwards to a new dynasty, in the person of Spartacus. These new monarchs, though of Thracian origin, according to all appearance, liked the Greeks, particularly the Athenians, and governed them with mildness: they drove the Scythians from the peninsula of the Kertsh, took possession of Theodosia, and extended their other possessions on the Kuban.

About 180 years before our æra, the Sarmatians, or Syromedes, originally of Media, having exterminated the Scythians, the Taurinians gradually established their dominion over the whole of the peninsula, and molested the kingdom of Bosphorus, as well as the independent state of Cherson. These two opulent towns fell a prey to the rapacity of these barbarians, who levied on them enormous contributions; and when their demands were not complied with, they committed the most horrible excesses.

These vexations continue till the beginning of the century which preceded the Christian æra. In the year 81 before Christ, Mithridates, king of the Euxine, having already subjugated Bosphorus and Cherson, conquered the Taurinians, and thus became master of the whole Crimea: with a view of insuring the possession of this conquest, he sent into Scythia two tribes of Sarmatians, who inhabited the town of Tauros or Tauropolis; one of them was called Yazique, and the other Royal.

Mithridates enjoyed his conquest about sixteen years, when being conquered by Pompey, besieged in his capital by his own son, and his army by revolting, rendering it impossible for him

to accomplish the noble designs he had conceived against Rome, his great soul preferred death to humiliation.

It was at this period alone that the Romans appeared for the first time in the Crimea. The difficulty of defending this country, determined them to cede to Pharnaces, the rebel son of Mithridates, the crown of Bosphorus. Pompey only excepted from this cession the town of Phanagoria, which he erected into a republic, to recompense it for having given to the other towns of the Bosphorus the first example of infidelity towards their legitimate sovereign.

In the first century of our era, the Alains penetrated into the Crimea, rendered tributary the kings of the Bosphorus, and about the year 62, succeeded in exterminating the Taurinians. The dominion of these new masters lasted nearly 150 years.

Towards the middle of the second century the Scythians, already known by the name of Goths, supplanted the Alains: it was during their domination, under the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine, that Christianity was introduced into the Crimea. There were several bishoprics erected from time to time, at Cherson, at Bosphorus, and amongst the Goths. The latter were forced to submit to the Huns in 357; but they retained their habitations amongst the mountains, where some Alains also remained, and in the peninsula of Kertsch: they there had their particular kings, who were Christians; but towards the end of the fourth century, the kingdom of Bosphorus was entirely abolished.

With respect to the origin of the Huns first mentioned, it seems lost in the earliest periods of antiquity. They once occupied, and perhaps originally, a vast extent of dry and barren country to the north of the great wall of China; but the valour of the Huns extended the limits of their states, and their chiefs, who were known by the name of Tanjoux, were successively the conquerors and sovereigns of a formidable empire. Having been overcome and dispersed, two numerous divisions of these daring exiles took different routes, one towards the Oxus, and the other towards the Volga. The Huns had a brown complexion, a flat nose, small eyes, and scarcely any beard. These characters are still peculiar to the Mongoles and Turgusians; but particularly the want of beard.

The fall of the Huns having followed the death of Attila, the Ongres or Hungarians, entered the Crimea in 464, and occupied the southern coast of the peninsula. It was the descendants of those Hungarians, who, after that period, over-ran the plains of the Crimea, under the names of Utziagres, and Utzingures; but in 679, they were constrained, like the rest of their nation, to submit to the Chazares, who afterwards subdued the Goths of the

mountains, and the Greek towns. Chazare, in the Slavonian tongue, has the same meaning as *métanaste* in Greek, which is *emigrant*. The Greeks gave this epithet to a Sarmatian tribe, which had separated from that of the Yazigues, residing to the east and west of the Palus Maeotis, when Mithridates transplanted them into Scythia. It is worthy of remark that the Yazigues having emigrated towards the Danube, and established themselves between that river and that of Theisse, took the name of *Métanastes*.

In 840, the Emperor Theophilus erected a province under the name of Cherson, and reunited in that government all the Greek towns of the Crimea, and the Tsikic, or Kuban; for those people, who were tributaries of the Chazares, acknowledged as their sovereign the emperor of Byzantium. The Jews were at this time very numerous in the Crimea.

In 882, the Petchenegues, or Kanglis, expelled the Hungarians from the Crimea, and their other possessions, and formed on them a powerful republic. Towards the middle of the eleventh century, they were driven out in their turn by the Polovres or Comanians, who, it is fair to presume, were originally Huns, as well as the Petchenegues; the Comanians then established themselves in the peninsula, and permitted the Genoese to take possession of it.

About the same period, the town of Sugdaia, or Soldaya, now called Sudagh, acquired such great importance on account of its commerce, that it gave its name to all the territory that the Greeks possessed in the Crimea, which was called Sugdaia, or Soldania. Till the year 1204, it acknowledged the sovereignty of the Greek emperor, but it finished by shaking off its allegiance to the empire of Constantinople: its own princes were afterwards exterminated by the Ottomans, as well as those of Theodori, or Inkerman, and Gothia, or Mangut.

In 1237, the Mongholes or Tartars subjugated and destroyed the Comanians. At this time some Tartar princes, provided with some appendages, and taking the title of Ulugh Bey, spread themselves over the flat country with their horde, and continued in it till towards the 883d year of the Hegira, or 1478 of the vulgar æra, at which period Menguely Guerai Khan founded, with the protection of the Ottoman Porte, what was properly called the kingdom of the Crimea. The Greeks, and other inhabitants of the Crimea, paid the Mongholes the same tribute as was received by the Comanians. In the first years of the dominion of the Tartars, a great number of Tcherkasses, or Circassians, came and settled in the Crimea. Till 1833, Kertsh remained vsubject to a prince of that nation; and as the Mongholes carried on a considerable trade with the town of Krim, all the peninsula took that name, particularly the eastern part, which

still retains it. As long as the Romans were masters of Constantinople, the towns of Krim, Tamana, now Macriga, and Azof or Tama, also carried on a considerable trade, in which the Venetians were principally engaged; but when the emperor Michael Paleologue, by a treaty made with the Genoese, in the year 1061, granted them an exemption from the usual customs, or tolls, throughout Greece, and the liberty of navigating the Black Sea, they began to monopolize the commerce of the Crimea, to the exclusion of the Greeks and the Romans. They likewise enjoyed nearly all the advantage that arose from the sanguinary wars that took place in consequence of this monopoly; and they rebuilt, with the permission of the Khan of the Mongholes, the town of Caffa, which they made the centre of their trade: this soon became so considerable, that it gave its name to the peninsula for a time. By degrees the Genoese effected the conquest of Saldaya, or Sudagh, and Combala, or Balaclava. They paid, indeed, a tribute to the Mongholes, while the latter were powerful; but as soon as their intestine divisions began to weaken them, the Genoese shook off the yoke, and the princes of the flat country were for the most part elected and disposed of according to their will.

At this epoch, the commerce of India with the Crimea, and the neighbouring countries, was divided into two branches; one of which passed by the Amon, or Oxus, the Caspian Sea and Astrachan, and terminated at Tana or Azof; while the other went by way of Bagdat and Tauritz, to Trebizond and Sevastopol. Tana, though in submission to the Mongholes, belonged to the Genoese and the Venetians, who had consuls at Trebizond and Sevastopol. The Genoese, in fact, had extended their commerce by land as far as China; and had obtained from king Leon the privilege of trading in all the provinces of Armenia, from the Black to the Caspian Sea.

Genoa had recovered herself with much difficulty from the evils caused by her war with the republic of Venice; and being obliged to let the Venetians enjoy a complete liberty of commerce in her colony at Tana, she found them soon afterwards conclude a treaty with the Sultan of Egypt, which did her great injury. The Genoese colony, therefore, opened another branch of commerce in Bulgaria; and when Tana or Azof, ceased to belong exclusively to the Venetians, by passing under the domination of the Mongholes, the Genoese made it again the entrepôt of their merchandize.

In 1775, the Genoese power was annihilated in the Crimea. The Turks, at the demand of the Tartars, (the acts of injustice committed by the Genoese having excited the Tartars against Menguely Guerai, who protected that avaricious colony), took

possession of Caffa, Soldaya, Combalo, and even of Tana on the Don. These new conquerors put an end, at the same time, to the principalities of Gothia and Theodosia, established garrisons in the chief towns, particularly in those situated on the coast, and thus held in check the Khans of the Crimea. Nevertheless the latter were rather the allies than the subjects of the Porte, till 1584, when it succeeded in appointing them itself, or at least, in confirming them, when they were so rash as to dispense with its nomination. The Ottomans at first sent to Caffa a sandjag, and afterwards a beglierbey, who governed all these possessions in the Crimea on the Don; and finally, on the banks of the sea of Azof:—they also placed a strong garrison in that town, to keep the khans in awe, as by this means they closed the entrance of the Black Sea to all other European nations; commerce was almost annihilated, and the whole exportation from the different ports of the Crimea, did not consist of any thing but slaves and the productions of the country.

Mahomet II. having assured himself of the devotion towards him of Menguey Guerai, appointed him khan of the Crimea, in the 883d year of the Hegira, (1478-9) after making him sign a treaty, by which he recognised the feudality of the Crimea to the Ottoman empire. When the sovereignty of the peninsula passed to Menguey Guerai, there were not many Tatars amongst its inhabitants; but the wars which he carried on with them on the banks of the Volga, afforded him an opportunity to bring with him into the Crimea, several thousand Nogays, who were obliged to establish themselves in that country. His successors used the same means to people the Kuban, and the territories situated between the Don and the Niester.

The Khans of the Crimea, as has already been shewn, were rather the allies than the subjects of the Porte; but in 1584, Mahomet Guerai having dared to disobey the grand seignior, the Sultan Keniad nominated another khan, and sent the grand vizier, at the head of an army to punish the disobedience of Mahomet, and to cause the new sovereign to be acknowledged. Since that epoch, the khans have often been deposed, and sometimes recalled to the throne, according to the caprice of the grand seignior, till at length they were entirely subjected to his controul. But though the Porte had the privilege of raising whomsoever it pleased to the throne, it always regarded the recommendation of the khan, who might appoint a successor previous to his death.

Amongst the khans who reigned successively, we ought to distinguish Ghari Guerai, the ninth khan, Islan Guerai, the seventeenth, and Hadgi Selim Guerai, the nineteenth. Under the reign of this last, the Venetians in vain endeavoured to recover their commercial influence in the Crimea: two ves-

sels richly laden, though furnished with a firman of the Grand Seignior, were stopped in the harbour; the Divan being in league with the custom-house officers, took into consideration the motives which they alleged in their defence, and, notwithstanding the money that was received, it prohibited to the Venetians the navigation of the Black Sea. This Selim Guerai having beaten, in one campaign, the Austrians, Muscovites, and Polonese, saved the standard of the Mahometan religion, which was on the point of being carried off, and re-established the affairs of the Ottoman empire, which were falling into decay, the Janissaries wanted to raise him to the throne of Constantinople; but he refused to ascend it by using treason as the means: he therefore contrived to appease the sedition of the Janissaries; while the only recompence which he demanded of the Grand Seignior was, to make a pilgrimage to Mecca: this he obtained, and by it acquired the title of Hadgi, or Pilgrim, which is borne by all the Mahometans who make a journey to the tomb of the Prophet. He enjoyed, till his death, the greatest respect in Turkey; and the Porte, out of gratitude for his services, declared that his descendants alone should be raised to the throne of the Crimea; which was afterwards scrupulously observed.

In 1711, under Devlet Guerai, the twenty-fourth khan, Peter the Great, blockaded by the Turks and the Tartars, reduced, in short, to extremities, and not being able to procure provisions, offered a considerable sum to the grand vizier, and thus succeeded in saving his army, by concluding a treaty, in consequence of which he engaged to restore Azof.

The incursions of the Tartars having determined the empress Anne, to declare war against the Grand Seignior, in 1736, as sovereign of the Crimea, the Marshal de Munich, at the head of a Russian army, penetrated into this peninsula, and put it literally to fire and sword. The following year Marshal de Lascei burnt the town of Carasubasa, and a great number of Tartar villages; he entered the Crimea in the following spring, but the devastations of the last campaign forced him to make a retrograde movement.

In 1757, Alim Guerai, the thirty-fourth khan, having augmented the taxes and duties imposed on the Nogays, they engendered a dislike to him; and, shortly afterwards, he violated the fundamental laws of those Tartars, by appointing one of his sons seraskier of the horde of Budjak, to the prejudice of the brothers of the deceased: at last, other vexations induced the Nogays to revolt. Krim Guerai, whose character will presently be described, profited by these arrangements, and the manner in which he paved the way to the throne proved the extent of his

genius, the greatness of his courage, and the fertility of his resources. On attaining his end, he shewed the greatest attachment towards Alym, and the other deposed sultans, was good and affable towards the poor, and haughty and imposing towards the great; he was, nevertheless, just and liberal to all. He has been reproached only for too great a degree of severity, and for being subject to sudden anger; but it is a fact, that the good qualities of this prince surpassed all his faults.

Deprived of his empire in 1764, it was restored to him within four years afterwards by the Porte, who repented having taken it from him. War having broken out between Turkey and Russia, Krim Guerai, at the head of an army of fifty thousand Tartars, and one hundred and twenty thousand Turks, made an incursion into New Servia, and ravaged the whole country: his army, however, composed of Asiatics, was almost entirely destroyed by the severity of the climate. Having arrived at Bender, and finding himself afflicted with hypochondriacal complaints, a Greek physician administered to him a potion, the effect of which justified but too well the suspicions entertained of the hand which had prepared it. Krim Guerai died two days after having swallowed the draught: he was fifty-five years of age, and had reigned seven of them: never was there a khan more beloved by the Tartars, nor was there, perhaps, any one who merited better their esteem.

The two successors of Krim Guerai, were almost as soon deposed as elected; the war continued its ravages, and the Russian armies were crowned with laurels. The Prince Dolgoruky being dispossessed of the Crimea in 1771, the Empress, with the consent of the Tartars, placed the young Saheb Guerai upon the throne. The new sovereign, in union with the wishes of his people, renounced all alliance with the Porte, and the kingdom of Crimea was declared independent, under the protection of Russia, his new ally. The year following, Saheb ceded to the empress the towns of Kertch, Jénikalè, and Kilburun on the Nieper.

Mustapha III. who reigned at the time, was anxious to destroy these new alliances, and with that view set up several khans; but not being in a condition to support their claims, he attempted a reconciliation with Saheb, which last was disgraced at the court of St. Petersburg for the intrigue, and his brother Devlet was put in his place, who also, by new intrigues, was gained over from the side of Russia. At length, in 1774, the treaty of Cainardgi was concluded, which settled the independence of the Crimea. By this treaty Russia remained mistress of Kertch, of Jénikalè, and of Kilburun; and the Porte allowed a free navigation in all the seas dependent on the Ottoman states. In the same

treaty was stipulated the independence of the Tartars, and the liberty of their chusing a sovereign for themselves from among the descendants of Gengis Khan.

In the treaty of Menguely Gueraï with Mahomet II. the contracting powers could only stipulate by virtue of their respective rights. The power of deposing the khan, which was assumed by the grand seignior, did not strike at the independence of that nation. To declare a country to be free which has never been otherwise, is the first step towards its subjugation. Hence the pretended independence of the Tartars made them immediately subservient to Russia.

The treaty of Kainardgi reserved to the Grand Seignior at all times the spiritual supremacy, and the administration of laws devolved to the caliphs, as well as the investiture of the khan, which last was, at his accession, to notify his nomination to the two courts, to order public prayers to be made for the Grand Seignior in all the mosques; to receive from the cadilesker of Constantinople the Muracelch or patents of the cadies (judges); and lastly, to cause money to be coined with the impression of the Ottoman Sultan. Sahab was graciously accepted, having been confirmed khan by the empress; and the Grand Seignior sent him several insignia of royalty.

Nevertheless, the numerous party of Devlet Gueraï knew too well how to profit by the natural inconstancy of disposition of the Tartars; whose discontent at seeing the principal places of the Crimea in the hands of the Russians, occasioned them to revolt against their new sovereign, who having fled to Constantinople, Devlet Gueraï was re-elected khan by the Tartars, and soon after received the insignia of investiture from the Grand Seignior. Russia did not delay her interference; she seconded the ambitious views of Chahyn Gueraï, brother of the last khan, with an armed force, who, at the head of the Nogais, attacked Devlet. The two parties came to a battle; that of Chahyn supported by the Russians, gained a complete victory, and Devlet was about to solicit assistance from Constantinople, when the empress having advanced with a new army, under the pretext of maintaining the treaty of Kainardgi, the Porte, which was not in a condition to allow of a rupture, abandoned Devlet, established Chahyn, and the peace was considered by the two powers as not having been broken.

Chahyn was desirous to introduce among his troops the European discipline, of which he felt the superiority; he established the revenue of his kingdom without regarding the discontents occasioned by the rulers; expressed a too marked predilection for the manners of the Russians, and of the Christians; and thence drew upon himself the hatred of his subjects. Jeau-

lous of the preference which he seemed to give to strangers, parties were formed, ambition soon gave them chiefs, and the disaffected were to be found even in the family of Chahyn himself. Russia, whom a revolution had deprived of her influence in the Crimea, did not fail to take advantage of these troubles, and to support the prince who was her own creature. The Porte, after having in vain urged the act of independence by which the Tartars were made free of the interference of the neighbouring states, at length determined, on her side, to support the party opposed to Chahyn Guerai.

The Russians cut the Tartars to pieces at one of their posts near Batchisarai, took Caffa from them, and defeated at Balaclava, Selym Khan, who had been recalled by the Grand Seignior. The whole Crimea then submitted again to Chahyn, and the Porte was compelled to acknowledge him as khan.

Chahyn, however, experienced a cruel interference and opposition from his protectors; the marshal Suwarof received orders to banish into different parts of the empire all the Greek and Venetian families which were to be found in the Crimea, and a great number of those unfortunate people perished, from the rigour of the winter in that climate.

In 1779, the cabinet of Versailles made use of its power with the Porte to cause it to sign articles explanatory of the treaty of Kainardgi, the principal of which were: The absolute confirmation of that treaty; The consent on the part of Russia, that the khan elected independently by the Tartars, should convey to the sultan the *proces verbal* of his election, to the end of having his confirmation as to the spiritual supremacy: The engagement on the part of Russia to withdraw its troops, &c. &c.

In the month of December 1781, the Crimea was reduced to the most dreadful state of calamity. Since the insurrection of the Christian subjects, the cultivation had been almost totally neglected, and the population was already considerably diminished. Some new revolts having occurred in the *Kuban*, and among the *Nogais*, all the ports in the Black Sea were blockaded by the Russians, whose operations were directed by the khan. These troubles and continual disorders in the interior, furnished the empress with a specious pretence to possess herself altogether of the Crimea and of the *Kuban*. The prince Potemkin, charged with that important affair, completed it with as much address as good fortune, in the beginning of the year 1783. Chahyn Guerai abdicated the throne, and ceded the Crimea, the *Kuban*, and the Isle of *Taman*, to the Empress Catharine. By a new treaty made at Constantinople, the 10th of June 1783, peace was concluded between Russia and Turkey, and the empress confirmed in the quiet enjoyment of her new possessions.

Thus disappeared the remnant of the empire of the Mogols, the most powerful and extensive which had, perhaps, ever existed on the face of the globe.

In 1451, the empire of Quaptchaq, which made a part of that of Gengis Khan, was entirely dissolved, and its wreck formed several mighty kingdoms; such as Quaptchaq, properly called Kasan, Astracan, and the Crimea. These kingdoms have been successively absorbed by the growing power of Russia, which, until that epoch, had been tributary to the khan of Quaptchaq; such are the changes and vicissitudes in empires.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE TEMPLES OF DIANA, AND OF ORESTEON IN TAURIDA.—OF THE CHERSONESIAN REPUBLIC, OR THAT OF CHERSONESUS IN THE CRIMEA.—AND OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS AND MOUNTAINS IN THAT COUNTRY.

THE magnanimous conduct of Orestes and Pylades claimed the admiration of all who were witnesses of their noble deeds. The Taurians were so much pleased that they presently forgot the insult offered to their goddess, or at least they remembered it only to do honour to the memory of those illustrious strangers: they erected a temple to them under the name of the Temple of Orestcon. It followed that the arts transmitted to posterity the recital of the events which had occasioned its erection. An inscription of the circumstances was engraved on a column of brass, and the principal events depicted on the walls of the gallery which surrounded the edifice; which painting, in *fresco*, lasted until the time of Lucian, who died in the 193d year of the Christian æra.

The Taurians had in themselves the seeds of those sublime virtues which they admired in their conquerors, and after the appearance of these two heroes, those seeds put forth such deep roots, that the people made a law of the inviolability of friendship. This religious regard for that virtue, was increased and strengthened by time. The Scythians adopted the same maxims, they ranked friendship as the highest of the virtues, and practised all its duties with a zeal unknown to other nations.

There were three temples dedicated to Diana in Taurida. Let us fix our attention to that from whence Orestes took the statue of the goddess: when we arrive thither, we shall be unquestionably in the neighbourhood of the place where the temple of Orestcon was built: not to leave any thing to chance, we shall go step by step with the writers of the first century.

We have beneath our feet the ruins of the wall which inclosed

the Isthmus; we are distant about four leagues from ancient Chersonesus: to arrive thither, in coasting the shore, three forts are found; as according to Strabo, "*inter urbem (Chesonesum) et promontorium (Parthenium) portus sunt tres*." The sacred promontory of Cape Aja Burun is before us, on the Parthenium Promontory, and upon a steep rock is situated the monastery of St. George. There are some trees on this spot, and among others we observed the black juniper resembling the cypress. The monastery consists of a small church, a refectory, and some smaller apartments, inhabited by the monks. These anchorites are secluded from the rest of the world. I passed the evening on a terrace which overlooks the Black Sea. The day closed, and all was still, except the sound of the waves, which broke against the flinty shore; peace and quietness reigned on the surface of the sea; and in the monastery, overcome with lassitude, I yielded to the soft and melancholy impressions which subdued my mind: I imagined myself encircled by friends yet living, and by those I had lost: some tears fell on the balustrade upon which I leaned. Presently the air became sultry and heavy, the clouds thickened, a rushing wind, the precursor of storms, proclaimed the approach of a dreadful tempest; lively impressions of terror succeeded to the softest sensations. The thunder roared, the rain fell in torrents, the lightnings darted from the clouds, the thunder-bolts fell, and a volume of fire succeeded the most horrible obscurity: all was chaos, every thing disappeared. But presently the rain ceased, the flashes of lightning were not so frequent, and the thunder was only heard from afar; the air became clear, the clouds began to dissipate, and there remained only on my mind the recollection of the awful scene I had witnessed. The monks, accustomed as they were to the frequent storms of these parts, assured me, that they had seldom beheld one so terrible.

On this promontory our guide called our attention to the temple of a certain virgin goddess, *Fanum Dæmonis Virginis*, and its idol: we compared, we measured the scite, and we applied to the geography and description of the cotemporary poet OVID. Every thing agreed, we were in front of the temple of Diana, where that goddess was worshipped under Thoas; we trod, beneath our feet, the blood of the Greeks sacrificed during so many centuries, and the dust of the altar of white marble upon which Iphigenia had nearly offered up her own brother. On this spot, doubtless, stood the altar, and here also was the pedestal of the golden statue of Diana, carried away by Orestes.

We have before our eyes the valley from whence we ascended to the temple by forty steps, under which was the grotto consecrated to the nymphs; we measured, with an eye of horror, the place from whence they threw into the sea, according to Herodotus,

the remains of those unhappy victims. This enormous rock, which raised its head above all others, and whose base defies the waves, and withstands the storm, is the same rock behind which Orestes concealed himself to watch the favourable opportunity; of this we can doubt no longer: we behold too, the cape whereon was erected the temple of Oresteon, not far from that of Diana, which always preserved the name of the deity, although, since the carrying off her statue, they sacrificed to Iphigenia.

In following the coast to the north-west, we observe a ridge of steep rocks which extend into the sea, and which form a kind of natural arch, under which the waves pass. On the same shore is to be seen the foundation of a considerable building; it consists of two regular squares, the walls of which are nearly in the direction of the four quarters of the world; that which is most to the north is thirty-three feet in extent, and is built on a base elevated in the form of a hill; it seems to have had a way out towards the sea. From the south-west side it is surrounded on all parts, without the foundation, with a range of enormous stones rudely shaped. In the midst, but rather nearer to the wall on the north side, is a cubic stone level with the ground*; round this we observe, in an open square on the same side, other smaller flat stones placed in the ground, which seem to have served as bounds, and to have had some relation to the stone in the middle, on which was, probably, either an altar or a statue. The square towards the south nearly approaching the sea, and adjoining the former one, is oblong and a little larger. It seems also to have had a way out at the south-east angle, and another towards the north-west: it consists equally of large hewn stones. Near the wall which looks to the sea, are to be seen large flat hewn stones also, which describe a sort of path as if drawn with a line: this file of stones follows the same direction for the length of the other square.

All the south-west angle of the Crimea, almost cut through on one side by the port of Sevastopol, and on the other by that of Balaclava, was formerly called the Heracleotic Chersonesus, founded by Greek colonies from the city of Heraclea in Asia Minor, about the commencement of the sixth century before Christ. The peninsula called Thrace by the ancients, was inclosed by a wall which joined the two ports of which we have just spoken.

The early state and progress of the colony is obscure, as is the case with all the cities of great antiquity. This little state, sufficiently well governed to be happy during peace, but

* M. Pallas caused this stone to be raised, and a light earth was found beneath.

too weak to resist the attacks of the barbarians, who often laid waste those countries, courted the protection of Mithridates king of Pontus, who had compelled Parysades II. to surrender to him his kingdom of Bosphorus, situated on the confines of Taurica.

After the victory of Pompey, Chersonesus became subject to Rome; when the emperor Adrian limited the bounds of his empire, this city, which set a high value on the protection and friendship of the Romans, continued to acknowledge their dominion. Interiorly governed as a republic, it had its *protevous*, who were the chiefs of the senate during peace, and of the army in the time of war. These magistrates bore the popular title of Fathers of their Country: conducted by them, the people of Chersonesus defeated the Bosphorian Sarmatians, who were at war with Rome. In the following century Constantine the Great employed them to repel the Scythians, who being numerous, and masters of the shore right of the Danube, could not see, without considerable uneasiness, the translation of the Roman metropolis from Rome to Byzantium. To recompense the zeal of the people of Chersonesus, the emperor not only confirmed their ancient privileges, but granted them new ones. The Bosphorians made two other unsuccessful attacks against the Chersonites, which last, after having obtained a complete victory, freed them from the dominion of the Sarmatians; but the hatred of the Bosphorians was not extinguished.

Here the thread of the history of Chersonesus is broken until the epoch of the siege of the Huns in the sixth century. The emperor Justinian assisted to raise it. As Chersonesus was the most remote city from Constantinople, they banished thither the state prisoners, the most remarkable of whom were Pope Martin the First, the emperor Justinian the Fourth, and Rhinometus, dethroned and castrated by Leontius, who, when he was restored to the throne, exercised unheard of cruelties against the Chersonites and Bosphorians. The Chersonesian republic persecuted, and almost annihilated, by the chief of the empire, who owed it his protection, in gratitude for its patriotic attachment and former services, was indebted for the remnant of its existence to the tutelary support of the Chazarians.

About the middle of the ninth century, the emperor Theophilus constituted Chersonesus a Roman province: thus vanished all the remainder of its republican form of government. Its interests and its fears caused it to submit easily to the yoke; and Saint Cyrilla was sent to Chersonesus, to convert the Chazarians.

The Grand Duke Uladimir having menaced the empire with invasion, at the head of a powerful army, the emperor thought proper to buy a peace by the richest presents, and concluded

with him a treaty, the conditions of which he no longer observed when the danger was passed. The Grand Duke Uladimir determined to do himself justice, and besieged Chersonesus with a considerable fleet. This great man, struck with the absurdities of paganism, which he professed, and which appeared to him an obstacle to the prosperity of his country, as soon as the light of the faith was shewn him by the preachers of the missionaries of the Pope, and the precepts of a Greek philosopher; their doctrine according perfectly with good morals, and differing only in the forms of worship; mistrusting his own choice between two paths, which should lead to the same end, appointed, by the advice of his counsel, ten of the most enlightened men of his nation to go to Constantinople, for the purpose of taking exact information on the subject, and consented to be determined by their report. They returned enchanted with what they had seen and heard in the Greek church, and the Grand Duke and his people, affected with the recital, decided unanimously for the Greek ritual. The prince came to the resolution of being baptised at Chersonesus.

Uladimir took the town after an obstinate resistance, accomplished his vow, and abandoned his conquest to the emperors by a treaty of peace.

The jealousy of Sudagh prompted the Chersonites to rise against the emperor Michael Ducas, who, at the time, engaged in a disastrous war with the king of the Bulgarians, implored the assistance of Wsevolod, grand duke of Russia, which last caused an army to be marched to Chersonesus, commanded by his two sons, Uladimer and Glebe: the death of the emperor happening about the same time, put a stop to these hostilities. The Chersonites having seized some Russian*merchant vessels, they were compelled, not only to restore them, but to pay the expences of the war. The concurrence of Shudagh was not the cause of the destruction of Chersonesus, it had not less to suffer from the jealousy of Theodosius.

Gedimir, grand duke of Lithuania, and Olgord, his son and successor, made several incursions into the Crimea, and almost entirely destroyed Chersonesus: however, it was not entirely overthrown, until in the year 1350; the magnificent Genes hastened its ruin, by refusing to allow the imperial cities to send ships to Chersonesus by the Bosphorus, nor generally towards the north beyond the mouth of the Danube. This crisis was yet more fatal to the Chersonites, as they were surprised in a state of inactive imbecility, the effect of luxury, and increased by the last invasion of the Lithuanians. The remnant of this unfortunate people sought for safety under the protection of the Tartars; but they only changed their oppressors, and the bar-

barians complicated the ruin of Chersonesus. In the sixteenth century its towers and walls were yet entire, being the only monuments of the magnificence of its founders. We saw in one part of the town near the isthmus, the ruins of its ducal palace, and farther off, those of a monastery and a church. The marble columns, and all the works of art, the solid materials of which would have resisted the ravages of time, have been carried to Constantinople, for the decoration of great private houses, or of public edifices.

At some versts from Sevastopol the traveller passes through the ruins of its numerous walls, which inclose large spaces, and which form in some parts, streets, and small squares. It is not, however, to be supposed that Chersonesus extended so far; it is more likely that those walls inclosed the gardens of the inhabitants, and of their country houses: with respect to the foundation of edifices constructed with large hewn stones, found scattered and isolated throughout Chersonesus, they served, doubtless, for retreats and asylums to the inhabitants, who were constantly exposed to the attacks of the barbarians.

It is nearly about two versts from Sevastopol, that the ruins of Chersonesus are discovered. The building of Sevastopol has entirely completed the ruin of that ancient city, of whose walls we still behold the ruins. At the time the Crimea came into the possession of the Russians, there were discovered among the ruins, sculptured marble, coins and medals, of different metals. It is remarkable that these curiosities were found by the soldiers and sailors, for no other person has had the common sense to make the search; conducted, however, with care, such a labour would richly recompense those who would give themselves the trouble to undertake it.

Where the ancient Chersonesus, destroyed since the time of Strabo, was situated, has been the object of research of numerous geographers; but their contradictory opinions leave the matter in an uncertainty, from which it is not, however, difficult to relieve it, by attending minutely to the description of Strabo, who says, *inter urbem* (that is to say, the new Chersonesus) *et promontorium* (Parthenium) *portus sunt tres, sequitur vestigia Chersonesus nunc diruta et post hanc portus angusto introitu. Symbolon dicitur.*

It may be clearly perceived that this ancient city was situated between the last bay, and Balaclava, the port of which was Symbolon, from which the Genoese have named it Cembalo. It is then, Cape *Lunary* to which the passage of Strabo relates. The two sides of the bay extend so far into the peninsula, that it is not more than three hundred toises in breadth at the place where the isthmus is narrowest: from thence it enlarges, and

acquires again, at its extremity, a surface of more than a verst and a half. Nearly half the surface of this peninsula is covered with the rubbish of old buildings.

The towns of the Crimea are few in number, and are but thinly peopled. Those which have been built by the Tartars contain only a few narrow and unpaved streets, which are always in a filthy condition. The courts around the houses are closed with high walls, and the houses, which are built on the inside, are so low that a stranger thinks he is walking between half-ruined stone walls. Too much praise, however, cannot be given to the Tartars for their care in conducting the water by canals, sometimes from a very considerable distance, and the purposes to which they apply it; either by making public springs, or conveying it into their houses. Unfortunately, these fountains have been in a great degree destroyed by the Russians, and those which remain, decay daily for want of necessary repairs. The ancient splendour of some of these towns is attested by the ruins they contain; while others seem to be built upon the rubbish of their former edifices. War and destruction have every where left the traces of their passage, and the traveller has incessantly before his eyes a picture of the vicissitudes of human affairs.

For the facility of description, I shall divide the Crimea into three parts; the plain, the mountains, and the peninsula of Kertsch.

Or Capi, now known by the name of Perecop, is a small town situated on the isthmus, which joins the Crimea to the continent, and serves as a port to the peninsula. This isthmus has been fortified since the earliest ages; but the fortifications that are now to be seen on it, are the work of the Turks. The line of walls runs from the Black Sea to the Sivache, an extent of eight versts and a half, and is defended by batteries.

To arrive in the Crimea you pass a bridge and a small arched gate, near the fortress of Perecop. The town of Perecop consists only of a few miserable houses of turf and wood; and they are inhabited entirely by the garrison, or the persons employed in the salt-pits. This post, however, is of the greatest importance; for should an increased commerce with Constantinople and Natolia introduce the plague, or should any seditious commotions take place amongst the Tartars, this fortress could stop all communication with the empire; on the other hand, should Russia make free-ports in the Crimea, in order to facilitate the important commerce which might be carried on with the Black Sea, the Mediterranean, and Natolia, custom-houses might be situated here with the greatest advantage.

About four versts inland is Amanskoi Bazar, which consists of a few houses and shops, chiefly inhabited by Greeks and Armenians.

nians. Koslof is situated to the west of the peninsula, on the banks of a sandy and circular bay. This town is inclosed with walls flanked by towers. It is built, like all the Tartar towns, in narrow and irregular streets; and in it are several handsome mosques, some of them partly in ruins, as are many of the houses. The number of the latter, altogether, may be seven or eight hundred. The road of Koslof is bad and dangerous, in consequence of the western winds. About thirty ships come to it annually. Its commerce is considerable. Its importations consist of rice, coffee, sugar, dates, figs, dry and other fruits, woolle and other stuffs; and its exports of coin and salt.

Akmetshet, or the white church, situated at the foot of some mountains, has received from its new owners the name of Sympheropol, which is given also to a large and fine plain, on which is built the palace of government, and which is soon to contain a new town. Akmetshet was formerly the residence of the Kalga Sultan. The Salghir runs near the town, which is inhabited by Tartars, Russians, Greeks, Jews, and Armenians.

Bachtchisarai, the ancient residence of the Khans of the Crimea, is situated between two high mountains, in a narrow valley, through which runs the rivulet Dshuruk-su. The houses are built partly in the valley, and partly in ridges, one above the other. The gardens, the towers of the mosques, the Italian poplars, and the rocks, which seem ready to fall and crush the town, afford a picturesque view, which, perhaps, scarcely has its equal. The principal street, which is about a verst and a half in length, contains, almost the whole way along, two rows of miserable wooden shops. As the empress Catherine gave up this town to the Tartars, it contains no Russian burgesses, but is inhabited entirely by Tartars and Jews, who may amount to 5 or 6000 souls. Bachtchisarai contains thirty-one mosques, and seventy-five fountains.

The palace of the khan is situated near the Dshuruk-su, on the edge of a quay. You arrive at it by means of a stone bridge, built across the rivulet; near which a gate opens into the outer court: to the left is a large and handsome mosque belonging to the khan, and farther on are the stabling, while to the right is the building which is properly called the palace: it is only one story high, and consists of several fronts, of different heights, the roofs of which have an agreeable variety of structure.

Near the palace, and on the declivity, is a fruit-garden divided into four terraces. Behind the mosque is the cemetery, where are deposited the remains of the khans, their families, and the most considerable persons, myrzas, and priests.

At about two versts from Bachtchisarai, in ascending a strait path, which is scarcely any thing more than steps cut in the rock,

we arrive at Dchufutkali, built on the summit of a mount, which rises into a peak on each side. This town, composed of about two hundred houses, contains twelve hundred inhabitants of both sexes. They are Karait Jews, reject the Talmud, and have their bibles from Poland. All the shops at Bachtchisarai are kept by these people; they repair thither on horseback in the morning, and return home at night in the same manner. They have adopted the costume and manners of the Tartars, and speak their language. As they have no water in this town, they carry thither, on the backs of asses in small vessels, that of a fountain situated on the side of a neighbouring mountain. Their cemetery, shaded by ancient trees, is without the town, at the beginning of a valley. The tombs bear the Hebrew inscriptions; and the most ancient of them is three hundred and fifty-eight years old.

There is not any thing can be more awful than this little valley of Josaphat: ranges of tombs in the form of sarcophagi, are shaded by trees of great age and growth; the singing of the birds, and the rushing sound of the leaves with the breeze, disturb only the silence of this abode of peace. I enquired of the rabbi who accompanied me, since what time his ancestors had reposed in that spot. He led me to the most ancient of the tombs: it was almost entirely sunk into the earth, and M. Fazzardi, who served me as interpreter, could only read the following words:

CECY—JOSEPH, FILS DE SCHABATAI,
LE TOMBEAU—5204,

which answers to the year 1445 of our era.

“The question that you have put to me,” said the rabbi, “is simple and natural. You are, however, the first traveller who has thought of doing it, and the first who has seen the tomb of Joseph.”

SEVASTOPOL.—I shall make an article by itself of this city.

Inkerman, called by the Greeks Theodori, was a flourishing town situated at the extremity of the port of Sevastopol. Formalioni considers it to have been the Ctenos of the ancients. There are to be seen in the surrounding mountains several grottoes with chambers, cut in the rocks, which are without doubt the works of some Greek monks. These ancient cells serve at present as magazines for powder. The like grottoes are to be frequently met with in the mountains of the Crimea, particularly in those of Tépékirman.

Mangut, or Mankup, anciently Gothia, was formerly a somewhat considerable town, situated upon a very high mountain on the borders of the river Carbada. A little time before the possession of the Crimea by Russia, the population of Mangut appears to have been composed of Tartars and Jews, but it is entirely deserted.

Balaclava, formerly Symbolon and Cymbalo, is situated to the south of the peninsula, at the extremity of the mountain Aiadagh. This town, founded, according to all appearance, by the Greeks, re-peopled afterwards by the Genoese, and now deserted and fallen into ruins, has been restored to its first inhabitants. It is thought by Strabo to have made part of the Heracleotic Chersonesus, and a wall joined its port to that of Cherson. It has a garrison for a Greek battalion, which Russia maintains in the Crimea. The water is in general bad. The port, situated to the west of the town, is about a verst in length by two hundred toises in width. It has depth, however, sufficient to receive vessels of the largest size. The high mountains shelter it from every wind, in such a manner, that the water is always as calm as that of a pond. Its entrance to the south is so narrowed by high rocks, that two vessels cannot pass together without danger of running foul of each other. Although this entrance appears dangerous, the port has been gladly made by vessels which the storms had driven near the peninsula, and which could not double the point of Chersonesus, as they there found an asylum. The fear of contraband trade, which it would be easy to prevent, has occasioned them to shut this port against ships of all nations. The orders are to fire upon all vessels which would enter, even those of the crown. This vigorous measure has occasioned a number of shipwrecks. Last winter, four ships driven by the tempest, asked in vain for permission to enter, they struck opposite to the monastery of St. George. The crew and cargo of two of them were entirely lost.

At the entrance of the port, upon a high mountain to the east, is situated the old Genoese fortress, defended by high walls and towers. It is to be remarked, that all the strong places of the Greeks and Genoese, were situated upon inaccessible rocks. Cnashibasar, or Karas-basar, is situated between two mountains in a valley, across which runs the Catasch. The town is well peopled, because its position, in the centre of the peninsula, renders it commercial. The inhabitants, to the number of three thousand, are Tartars, Greeks, Jews, Russians, and Armenians. They reckon in Cnashibasar, twenty-three mosques, and three Greek or Armenian churches. The khans, or houses of depôt for commerce, resemble old Gothic palaces, they sell all sorts of merchandize, as shawl, stuffs, muslins, hales of cotton, &c. These depôts can only be made in the khans, this is generally observed throughout the Crimea.

Eski-krym, anciently Krim, which, under the Tartars, gave name to the whole peninsula, is situated, with its extensive ruins, in a fertile plain at the foot of the mountain — Agermych. This town, formerly so populous and flourishing, presents only

heaps of scattered rubbish, is almost totally uninhabited, and its numerous gardens are entirely neglected.

Caffa, called by the Genoese Theodosia, is situated upon a high mountain, which descends with a half circular slope towards the roadstead, where the promontory protects the vessels from almost every wind, except the north and south-west. The advantageous position of this town, has procured it a considerable commerce. It was so flourishing under the Genoese, that it obtained the name of Krim-Stambul, (Constantinople of Crimea). Its numerous ruins attest its ancient splendour and great population. The most remarkable things to be noticed in this place are, the fortifications, which surround the town and the fortress; the walls, tolerably well preserved and flanked with towers; the many half effaced inscriptions thereon; the principal mosque, a handsome building, constructed with noble simplicity; and the grand reservoir, which receives the water from the mountains, and supplies the other conduits.

After having given to Caffa its ancient name of Theodosia, the Russian government seemed desirous to restore its commerce; a quarantine was therefore established, and encouragement given to merchants who would settle there. Yet Caffa contains no more at this time than a hundred houses, built upon ruins, and the greater part inhabited by Greeks.

The peninsula of Kertsch, formerly called Cybernique, is situated very high up the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. Between Caffa and Kertsch, there are seen, near Akos, a rampart and a moat, which was the ancient line of demarcation of the empire of Bosphorus, and of the possessions of the Chersonites.

Kertsch, formerly Panticapæum, and more recently Bosphorus, is situated at the foot of a steep mountain, upon the borders of the Cimmerian strait, in which is to be found an excellent and a spacious roadstead. It was within the walls of the Bosphorus that the great Mithridates died. When the Crimea was under the dominion of the Porte, this place was governed by a pacha, and contained a garrison: in 1774, it was ceded to Russia, with Jenikale.

This town, formerly opulent, had an extensive commerce. The young Anarcharsis speaks as follows of his abode at Panticapæum: "In waiting the day of departure, I walked up and down its streets, and could not sufficiently admire the citadel, the arsenal, the port, the ships, their equipment, and their manœuvres. I wandered into the private houses, into the manufactories, and into the meanest shops. I left the town, and my eyes remained fixed upon the orchards loaded with fruit, and upon the country enriched with harvests."

The population was also great: at present there are only a hundred houses, inhabited by Greeks, who have no other means

of existence than by fishing. A beautiful fountain, in good condition, supplies a limpid and healthful stream; it is of stone, ornamented with white marble. The fortress, which is in bad repair, contains an extremely ancient Greek church; there are to be found here several bass-reliefs, with inscriptions on white marble, as the Venetian lion, on marble of the same colour, which is placed over the gate of the citadel.

Jenikale is situated twelve versts from Kertsch, on the south corner of the most advanced point of the peninsula. The fortress is on a high mountain, of which the slope to the sea is covered with about one hundred houses, inhabited by Greeks, who employ themselves in fishing for sturgeons. The Turks, who built the fortress, kept a garrison there until the cession of this town to Russia.

The Crimea has been subject to revolutions, which have intermixed the race of its inhabitants. Without dwelling on this medley of different nations, I shall content myself with speaking of the Tartars, who form almost the whole of the population. I shall separate them into three classes, the Nogays, the Tartars of the plain, and the Tartars of the mountains. The seven or eight thousand Tartars who are to be seen wandering from the Berdan to the Molochna, are (as well as the Nogays made prisoners in the fortress of Anape) a remnant of the Tartars of the Kuban. They encamp themselves in little cabins of felt; their tents, according to Thunmann, are a kind of portable huts, of a circular form, of about eight feet in diameter, made of lath-work or hurdles of twigs, about the size of a thumb, forming a sort of wall about four feet in height, upon which rests a dome or roof of the same structure; the hole is covered with mats of rushes and brown felt, which neither wind nor rain can penetrate: at the top of the roof is a hole of two feet diameter, which serves as a passage for the light and the smoke; the door, covered with a mat, is as narrow as possible; three or four cushions stuffed with horse hair, a low wooden table, two iron pots, two or three wooden dishes, and a rush mat, compose the whole of the furniture.

These Tartars wander in hordes, and, according to the ancient custom of the Mogols, support themselves on horse-flesh and the milk of mares. They begin, however, to build fixed habitations, and to occupy themselves in the cultivation of the soil: a sheep's skin and a coarse cloth compose their covering. They have flat faces, of a blackish brown colour, the eyes small and sunk in the head, the nose hooked, and little beard. The Nogays are Mahometans, but very ignorant in matters of religion. They relate the answer of a buffoon of Selym Guerai, pressed by his master to embrace the Mahometan faith, "No," replied he, "I cannot; but not to disoblige you, I will turn Nogay."



Tartarian Encampment



Costume of the Tartars of the Crimea.

The Nogays have obtained a great many of the superstitious idolatries of the Mogols: all of them are, as the features of their faces demonstrate, the descendants of the purest of the Mogol race, who comprised the greater part of the armies of Gengis Khan.

The Tartars of the plain occupy the steppes of the Crimea, and have preserved, particularly in the district of Perecop, in their faces a great resemblance of the Mogols. They till the ground, and employ themselves in the feeding of cattle, but have no taste for the cultivation of gardens; they inhabit small houses built after the Turkish fashion, and make use of bricks, when they cannot procure stone. Their fuel is a kind of cake, made of turf and dung, which they cut into squares, and place in high heaps to dry.

The mountain Tartars are a mixed race, and seem to be composed of the remains of the various tribes who once inhabited the Crimea. Their beard is thicker, and the hair of their heads lighter, than those of the other Tartars, who apparently hold them in contempt: their houses, which are built on the steep sides of the mountains, are roofed with turf in a flat manner, so that the inhabitants may walk on them; and they are built so close together, that these flat roofs seem like a street for the row of houses which stands next above them on the ascent of the hill. These Tartars are tolerably good gardeners and vine-growers; but they are too idle to make new plantations. Some of them who live in the southern vallies, employ themselves in the culture of tobacco and hemp. Their dress is much lighter than that of the inhabitants of the plain.

The physiognomy of the real Tartars of the Crimea, is very similar to that of those of the Turks and Europeans: their hair is brown, and they are above the common size. The mild temperature of the climate, the frugality of their meals, and the activity of their lives, all contribute to render them very robust.

The young people who belong to rich families and noble casts, dress themselves nearly like the Circassians. They wear whiskers on the upper lip, and shave the chin; while the old noble Tartars, on the contrary, let nearly all their beard grow: they wear half-boots of morocco, and when they go out they add slippers to them. Their heads are either shaved, or have only short hair on them; and they cover them with a high cap, generally of a green colour, and bound with lamb-skin.

The Tartar women are in general small, and of an agreeable shape. They wear an ample hood, a shift, open in front, which is fastened round the neck, and descends as far as the knees: over this is a robe, likewise open at the bosom, with long narrow sleeves, and above this robe is worn a surtout, bordered with ermine, and other furs, the sleeves of which are short, and in the

Turkish fashion. They dye their nails, and frequently their hair, with a reddish brown, in the manner of the Persians: they also colour their faces with red and white, and paint their eyebrows and hair with a composition which imparts to them a dazzling black colour for several months. When they go out, they put on a large robe of white woollen, wrap a white handkerchief round the head, and tie it under the chin; they then cover this with a large veil of white linen, which comes round the face so as only to leave visible their black eyes. In fact they are exactly similar to the women of Alexandria in Egypt, as described by Volney; and resemble wandering ghosts rather than human beings.

Though the general language of the Tartars is only a Turkish dialect, yet it is intermixed with such a number of Mogol and Arabic words, that a Turk has a difficulty to understand it. The Nogays in particular render themselves scarcely intelligible, by the quickness with which they speak, and their guttural pronunciation.

With respect to their manners and religion: we understand by the manners of a nation, its regular customs and usages; not those which, indifferent in themselves, are the result of an arbitrary mode of life, but those which influence the manner of thinking, acting, and feeling, or which depend on those causes. It is under this point of view that I shall speak of the manners of the Tartars.

There is this difference between wild and barbarous people, that the former are small scattered nations, which, for some particular reasons, cannot unite themselves to each other; while barbarians are considered to be small nations, which can unite together if they please. The former are generally hunters; the latter shepherds, or breeders of cattle. It is also extraordinary at first view, when we find that the hunters are a sedentary, and the breeders a wandering people.

The Tartars have often been reproached for their cruelty and propensity to plunder, but it has not been considered that they do not practise this conduct except towards those foreigners whom they consider enemies. As to the state of society amongst themselves, they are faithful, disinterested, and possess a degree of hospitality and generosity, which would do honour to the most civilized people.

The influence of the government appears to me much more general and efficacious than that of the climate. The Tartars of the Crimea have preserved, under a pure sky, the manners which they brought from the north of Siberia. Ages have passed away without making any alteration in their customs and usages; but the conquest of the Crimea by the Russians, within these few years, has already effected a considerable alteration in their manners. By being deprived of their military arms, the Tartars

have forgotten the use of them ; while those invasions which formerly laid waste Russia and Poland, carrying horror and desolation in every direction, are no longer to be apprehended :—the next generation will not retain even the remembrance of the conquests of its ancestors.

The noble Tartars of the first class, disdained all labour, and knew no profession except that of arms. In times of peace they lived upon their estates : they carried points of honour to extremes, but never quarrelled amongst themselves. Great and generous in their proceedings, they always receive strangers with affability and politeness. They still retain the practice of killing a horse, to make a feast on the arrival of a guest of distinction.

On my arrival at the house of the brother of Atai Myrza, this prince said to me, “ You are very welcome. As soon as I heard that you had come, I ordered a young mare to be killed, to give you a feast.” The interpreter who accompanied me, observed, on this occasion, that I should receive from my host the greatest mark of esteem, as a mare was the most precious article he had to offer me.

These people are hospitable in the extreme, as they freely share with travellers whatever they possess. Both their vices and their virtues are rude, and seem as if they were purely natural ; hence outrages are seldom committed, and a person may travel through their country in the greatest security.

The spirit of rapine and plunder, is the only thing that can bring the Tartars from their natural propensity to idleness.—They require but little, as the necessaries of life, and superfluous objects, do not attract them. As riches are now only the result of labour, idleness excludes avarice. To do nothing is to them supreme happiness, and when a Tartar has exhausted himself by performing any labour, he throws himself down and smokes : while such is their eagerness in this recreation, that they consider it as a disgrace for one Tartar to light his pipe at that of another hand. The Tartars love their wives, and polygamy seldom occurs amongst them.

All the Tartars are Mahometans, but they are not so fanatical as the Turks. Being brought up with the prejudices of fatalism, they are convinced that every thing is predestined, and are consequently resigned to whatever may happen. When in conversation with Atai Myrza, on the difference between our dress and that of the Tartars, I observed to him, “ *Your cap perhaps would defend your head against the strokes of a sabre!*” To which he answered, “ *If the steel was destined to strike me, my bonnet would*

not keep it off." I would not have mentioned this observation, had not Atai Myrza been one of the best of the Tartars, and not altogether ignorant of philosophy. Though the Koran admits of but little toleration, it left the Christians much liberty in respect of their religion, and affected scarcely any contempt for strangers.

The manners of the Tartars are like those of the orientals, in total opposition to our own. Their physiognomy is of a religious kind, and their actions and gestures correspond with their look of sedateness. Their air is grave and phlegmatic, their walk steady, and their visage serious and austere. They speak slowly, hear without interrupting, and pass whole days with their legs across and their pipes in their mouths; while their belief in predestination affects them with an apathy, which renders them insensible to every sort of regret or foresight.

Wine and gaiety are banished from their repasts; while the women being sequestered from their society, have neither the desire to please, nor the enjoyment of pleasure. Hawking and hunting the hare, form the greatest delight of the noble Tartars. In the towns their amusements are reduced to meeting in the coffee-houses, which, with respect to ours, bear no comparison but the name. There sitting with their legs across, they pass whole days in smoking their pipes, and talking at intervals with other lazy people who may drop in. Sometimes a singer recites a story or chaunts verses, accompanying himself with a bad instrument, in the shape of a guitar; the assembly listens with the greatest attention, and expresses the pleasure it receives by slight motions of the head. In general the Tartar song is grave, harsh, and discordant; their dance has the same grave character, as it consists of a continual agitation of all the limbs, though the feet scarcely ever quit the ground.

When at Koslof, with the chief of the police, I saw the performances of some Tartar merry-andrews. One of them played a kind of pipe to a single actor, who placed in the middle of the room a glass full of buzo, (a Tartar drink, made with fermented millet). The music striking up, he began to dance and throw himself about like a drunken man, falling several times to the ground, in a way which induced me to think he would fall on the glass; but rising again with bursts of laughter, the music increased his activity, and he agitated all his limbs in keeping time. After a long continuance of this fatiguing exercise, he fell down again, caught the glass in his mouth, and drank its contents without touching the vessel with his hands.

The itch is the necessary and inevitable consequence of the quantity of bad and sour milk which the Tartars consume, and

is therefore a very common disease amongst them. Even the nobles and their wives are not exempt from it. A certain disorder, unknown in the Crimea before its conquest by the Russians, is very generally extended, though without causing such great ravages as in other parts of the world.

The Tartars have receipts for different diseases. I was witness to the application of the following remedy:—A domestic of Atai Myrza having fallen from his horse, and had two of his ribs broken, his master made him drink water gruel till his belly was prodigiously inflated; and when he refused to take more, he was threatened with the bastinado and drenched with the gruel: his food was nothing but rice, added to the gruel; and this regimen was continued all the time of my residence; his master assuring me that the ribs would get into their places spontaneously. Without pledging myself for the efficacy of this singular remedy, it is a fact that the man was considerably better at the time of my departure. I had many opportunities of convincing myself of the ignorance of the Tartars in medicine and surgery.

The remains of the family of Gnerai have taken refuge in Turkey, and there is no longer in the Crimea a single male descendant of those princes.

The nobles and the clergy have preserved a great ascendancy amongst the Tartars. The great nobility of the country consisted of five families, each of whom had its particular bey: the eldest of the myrzas of a house, was always considered the chief of it. The first of those five great houses was that of the Chirines; and the Chirine-bey passed, next to the khan, for the most considerable personage in the whole Crimea, though the Kalga Sultan and the Nouraddin Sultan were superior to him in dignity. He had, however, like the khan, his Kalga and his Nouraddin, which the beys of the other houses had not. He was regarded as the defender of the kingdom and the liberty of the people, and possessed so much reputation and power, that he several times deposed the khan.

Atai Myrza, the Chirine-bey, is between 50 and 55 years of age; his constitution is robust, and his countenance grave, haughty, and impressive. He made his first campaign under Krim Gnerai, and acquired by his bravery and talents a considerable military reputation amongst the Tartars. This prince is endued with much natural wit and an easy elocution. He is free and generous in his manner; as a Mussulman, he is very tolerant in matters of religion, and is partial to strangers: his manners are gentle, and his table is frugally supplied. Atai Myrza enjoyed a considerable revenue under the khans, and when the Crimea was taken posses-

sion of, the court of Russia granted him a pension of two thousand rubles; which, however, was soon suppressed. Being now reduced to what he has left of his ancient domains, this prince can scarcely live without contracting debts: he appears alarmed at the future prospects which his family have before them; as he is much attached to his children.

During my stay I once supped with Atai Myrza, at the house of the mufti. The repast was prepared and served in the manner of the country. Having excited the admiration of my hosts by my agility in jumping and tumbling, this exercise, to which I am partial, placed me in a situation of doing honour to the feast. The appetite with which I partook of all the dishes was remarked by the guests, and Atai Myrza taking me by the hand, was so pleased at my not despising their cookery, that he invited me to pass a few days with him, and promised that I should live entirely *à la Tartare*.

I did not hesitate to accept the invitation, and was received by my host in the most amiable manner. We passed the day in riding on horseback, and shooting with the bow and arrow. Nothing could exceed the strength and cleverness with which the prince drew the bow, and he rarely missed his aim, though the target was at a prodigious distance. The conversation for the rest of the day turned on France and Buonaparte. "What I am most astonished at," said Myrza, "is, that this great man has done so much in such an enlightened age as ours. When he sailed with the expedition to Egypt, I thought it was his intention to re-establish the kingdom of Poland, and that he would disembark, with this view, on the shores of the Black Sea; but the great man had other designs. *I know not,*" added he, "*whether I shall be deceived in my presentiments; but I think that within four years there will be a general war in Europe*!*"

Next to Atai Myrza, Seid Mahommed Effendi is the person who enjoys the greatest consideration. Seid Mahommed has a spirited and expressive physiognomy, and I think him a man of talents; at least he gave proofs of them in his journey to Petersburg. Being ordered to court, and accused of conducting himself in a manner injurious to the interest of Russia, he returned to the Crimea, and resumed his functions, after receiving a gold

* This passage is worthy of particular consideration. The Travels of Reuilly were performed in 1803, and the book was published at Paris in the spring of last year. We attach no credit to the pretended conversation with Atai Myrza; but the report of it shews that the intentions of Buonaparte respecting Poland, were known to his officers long before their execution was attempted.—Ed,

medal surrounded with brilliants, having on one side an effigy of the Emperor Alexander, and on the other an inscription, which states that the medal was given him as a recompence for the services which he had rendered the empire. He enjoys a pension of 2,000 rubles.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COUNTRY UNDER THE
KHANS AND THE RUSSIANS.—CLEANLINESS.—TAXES,
POSTS, ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE, AND PRISONS.

IN the plains of Tartary the hordes, from their different interests, were only so many troops of banditti, armed for attacking or defending, or for obtaining plunder. Being incessantly either travelling or in encampments, the cattle-breeders were soldiers, and the horde was an army. Hence, as in an army, the only laws are the orders of the chief, these orders are absolute, and admit of no delay.—But the first elements of government amongst these barbarians, have already been described by Volney, Deguignes, and Gibbon.

In the early ages of the pastoral world, each myrza, if we may use this modern title, acted like an independent chief of a separate family; but the ambition of individuals soon effected their union under a supreme chief. One man was raised to a throne with the approbation of his equals, and received the name of khan, which, in the language of the north of Asia, expresses all the power of royalty. It was his duty to lead his subjects to battle in person; but at his death, little respect was paid to the rights of his child: though it sometimes happened that a prince of the blood-royal, distinguished by his valour and experience, took the sceptre of his predecessors. Two sorts of taxes were levied upon the different tribes: one for the support of the dignity of the monarchy, and the other for the particular chief of the tribe. Each of these taxes amounted to a tenth of the property of each individual, and of the spoils which fell to his share.

The manners of the Tartars, who, like their khans, are accustomed to murder and robbery, may excuse some acts of individual tyranny: but the arbitrary conduct of a despot has never been known in the deserts of Scythia. The jurisdiction of each khan is restrained to his own tribe, and the exercise of his prerogatives has been moderated by the ancient institution of a

national council. The courouliais, or diets of the Tartars, were regularly held in spring and autumn, in the midst of a large plain, where the princes of the reigning family, and the myrzas of the different tribes, met on horseback, followed by all their warriors. The ambitious monarch, who might see all the strength of an armed people, would naturally consult his inclination. In the political constitution of the Tartars, may be perceived all the principles of a feudal government; but the perpetual conflicts in which these turbulent people have been involved, have sometimes terminated in the establishment of despotic power.

From the time of the subjugation of the Crimea in 1478, its government bore a resemblance to that of the empire to which it belonged. The khan had his mufti or patriarch, his prime minister or visir, the *cadi-lesker*, or chief officer of justice, and his grand council or *divan*. But the power of the Khan of the Tartars bordered more upon monarchy than despotism: he derived no revenue from lands or subjects, and could not make any change in the privileges of the nobles; nor could he chastise a noble person without the concurrence of the *beys*.

Since the Crimea has belonged to Russia, she has made many changes in its constitution; and it is said she has tried in vain to procure the love of her new subjects, by respecting their religion, and allowing them to choose judges from amongst themselves. The reason is, that she has endeavoured to make an agricultural people of those who were warlike and turbulent, but which cannot be done without effecting an entire change in their manners. The obstacles are, that a great part of the Tartars have emigrated, and those who remain will do the same, on the first vexatious circumstance they experience. This period is probably not far distant; for a conquered nation, whose religion and manners are very different from those of its masters, conceives itself vexed and tormented by its governors, at the same time that those governors think they act with perfect liberality. Yet, this emigration appears at first view to be more inimical to the interests of Russia than it really is. The empire has little reliance to place on the faith of the Tartars, the prejudices of Mahometanism inducing all its professors to consider the grand seignior as the successor of the caliphs and the chief of their religion. On the other hand, the idleness and the little genius of the inhabitants in the industrious arts, are the obstacles to such ameliorations as would soon render the Crimea a flourishing country.

When the feudal system existed in the Crimea under the khans, all the lands were either divided into fiefs, which were possessed by the nobles, or attached to dignities and domains, held by soccage. A certain number of fiefs and villages formed

a kadilik. The noble fiefs were all hereditary and independent, and not subject to any other fief, or even to the crown. The khan did not derive from them any annual impost, but when he repaired to the army, each kadilik was obliged to furnish him with a thousand piasters, and a chariot drawn by two horses, and laden with biscuit or millet, which ever he might choose. The uncultivated lands of which the khans make presents, on condition that they shall be cultivated, and villages established on them, were regarded as soccages, received directly from the khan, who had the tythe and all the other perquisites arising from them.

When the Turks under Mahomet II. expelled the Greeks from the Crimea, they kept all that part of the mountains on the southern coast, as well as several strong places. At the time when the Crimea was declared independent, the Khan Chahyn Gueraï, having been put in possession of the territory and the revenues which belonged to Turkey, he farmed out the greatest part of them, and sold the rest, or gave away the surplus. Some Tartars of the ordinary class, already possessed, either by purchase or the munificence of the khans, a portion of lands, which they could sell, and which was not liable to any tax. The Crimea being afterwards joined to the Russian empire, and the laws of the country not permitting any plebeian to possess lands, a doubt arose whether the lower class of Tartars should be allowed to buy, sell, or leave such lands to their heirs. An ukase of the senate, dated October 19th, 1794, decided, that the burgesses might possess and inherit the lands which they enjoyed; but that they should not, under any circumstances, sell them to the nobility. The numerous concessions made by the empress at the time of the conquest, and the right which the Tartars pretended to have to the greatest part of the conceded lands, gave rise to an inconceivable number of lawsuits. The landed property thus lost its value, from the uncertainty and indecision which prevailed, respecting the owner having peaceable possession of it. The evil at length became so great, that a commission of five members, appointed by order of the crown, was sent to the Crimea, to examine the titles of each party, and restore each owner to his rights; but the disorder was at its height, and at the time of my residence in the Crimea, nothing had been settled on the subject.

Under the Empress Catharine, the Tartars obtained an exemption of every kind of tax, and of the quartering of troops, as well as the privilege of not furnishing recruits. They undertook to maintain two regiments of Bechley, amounting to nearly 5000 men; but Paul I. having abolished the regular troops, those regiments were disbanded, and the senate proposed to subject

the Tartars to the same taxes as the rest of the empire. These people, however, complained strongly of the infraction of their privileges, and it is not known what might have been the result of their remonstrances, if the Emperor Alexander, on his accession to the throne, had not re-established them in their rights which they enjoyed under the Empress Catharine; and instead of maintaining the two regiments of Bechley, they were only required to supply wood for all the troops who might be quartered in the Crimea.

Under the khans the posts of Tartary were free, as those princes defrayed all the expences occasioned by them. Since the diminution of the Russians, they have been placed upon the same footing as all the other posts of the empire, and the Tartars are obliged to support them at their own expence. The horses with which they are supplied, are of a very miserable kind.

Justice was administered amongst the Tartars with more equity than amongst the Turks, though sometimes she was bought with impunity. The supreme tribunal was the divan or grand council of the khan; before whom was brought all the civil affairs of importance. The tribunal of the Cazi Asker, or Cedi Lesker, who is the principal officer of justice, takes cognizance of all the civil suits of the nobility. Each kadılık had its cadi or judge, who determined on all civil and criminal cases on which life did not depend. Their jurisdiction might be excepted against, before they had taken cognizance of the process, otherwise, though they did not decide according to law, there remained no resource but an appeal to the divan. The simplicity of the forms of justice, and the proximity of the tribunal, were two inestimable advantages; particularly as the appeal to the divan often prevented the venality of the cadis.

On being converted into a government, the Crimea received the same form of administration as the other parts of the empire, which has not a little contributed to alienate from it entirely the hearts of the Tartars. Not knowing the language in which their complaints must be made, they are exposed to numberless vexations, and are often left to the mercy of treacherous interpreters.

As the administration of justice under the khans did not require the aid of prisons, there are none to be found in the peninsula; but many unfortunate persons are heaped together at Akmetshet, in dreary subterraneous caverns, where air and light scarcely penetrate.

CHAP. IX.

AGRICULTURE.—FISHERIES.—INDUSTRY.—COMMERCE.—
POPULATION.—REVENUES.—RUSSIAN TROOPS IN THE
CRIMEA, &c. &c.

THE idleness and inactivity of the Tartars, are the cause of the languishing state of agriculture in the Crimea. That country which formerly supplied all Greece, can now with difficulty furnish food for the few inhabitants which remain. It is to the negligence and bad management of the Tartars that we are to attribute the sterility of the land; they make use of a plough with two wheels, and of the most clumsy mechanism: they put to this machine, according to the nature of the soil, two, three, and even four pair of oxen in grounds newly cleared. In place of the harrow, the Tartars use long branches of thorns fixed between two transverse pieces of wood, upon which they place stones; the inhabitants of the mountains use the buffaloes, the prodigious strength of which animal is necessary for the laborious work of agriculture in these countries. The stony nature of the soil does not permit them to employ the great Tartarian plough with two horses; but merely a kind of graplin iron, which description of plough they call *labon*: it has a share in the shape of a spear, tied up almost horizontally to its frame, and directed by a long lever made of a single trunk of ash. To this frame, which has at the side two rakes, is fastened a beam double the length of the lever.

The Greeks first brought the cultivation of the vine into the Crimea, and the Genoese propagated it in those parts of the country of which they were the masters. It is cultivated at this time with success. The borders of the Alma, the Katcha, and the Belbeck, afford good wine, although of an inferior quality to those of the vineyards in the southern valleys, and particularly of Sudagh and Kooz. The culture of the vine is not so carefully attended to as it might be, and the Tartars do not pursue the means to renew the plants, satisfying themselves with laying layers of the old vine, which are no longer productive. The necessity of frequent waterings, and the constant dryness of the soil, have occasioned them to plant in vallies, although the wine from thence is not of so good a quality as that from the mountains. The different sorts of grapes ripen from the middle of

August until the middle of October. There are an infinite variety of them; and they differ as much in colour and in the form of the seed, as in the quality of the wines which they furnish. The white grape is of a superior quality, and has more spirit than the red; those of Sudagh and Kooz approach nearer by their goodness and warmth to some wines of Lower Hungary. They would acquire a considerable improvement if they were cultivated with more care, and more skill used in the dressing.

The chief fishery of the Crimea is in the Sea of Azof, where is taken a considerable quantity of sturgeon of all kinds. The Greeks of Kertsh and Jenikale have established a considerable trade; they esteem particularly the red and transparent backs of these fish dried in the sun; and their spawn salted, is the caviar upon which they set so high a value in Russia, Greece, and Italy.

The Crimea has almost entirely lost its spirit of industry since the emigration of the Armenians and the Greeks; besides that, a variety of trades have ceased in consequence of the few wants of the Tartars. Some manufactories of felt, some others of moroccas, which they dye red and yellow, some tanneries, and shops of cutlery, are almost the only branches of industry among the Tartars. When a stranger walks the streets, he meets only with locksmiths, farriers, potters, saddlers, braziers, shoemakers, venders of small loaves, barbers, and butchers very badly supplied. The mountaineers are the only cartwrights, and the work which comes from their hands is clumsy and badly done. In some villages the Tartars make salt-petre, by washing in ley the nitrous earth with cinders, which they collect in heaps before their houses.

The Crimea is advantageously situated for commerce. That peninsula, nearly surrounded by the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof, in which the Don empties itself, is able to receive in its ports, principally in those of Kertsh and of Caffa, the merchandizes of India, Persia, and Siberia. Under the Genoese, those of India, Persia, and Arabia, came to Astracan, went up the Volga, afterwards by land into the Don, distant about sixty versts, and were conveyed by that river to Azof, from whence they were embarked for Caffa. Iron, copper, spars, pitch, tar, and skins, might arrive from Siberia by the way of the Volga, to be after conveyed by the Don. They might by this means acquire other articles, as butter and fat. The lower parts of the Volga would furnish fish, glue, caviar, kali, oil of fish, and tallow; and from the tributary states of Russia, might be procured, hemp, lincens, and sail-cloth.

The commerce of the Crimea is not considerable: several circumstances operate against its commerce; the want of popula-

tion, the little industry of the inhabitants, and the small quantity of corn which they grow. The exportation does not exceed four or five hundred thousand rubles, and the importation may be from three to four hundred thousand. The principal articles which they supply to the foreign markets, are salt and corn; the rest consist of leather, kali, butter, caviar, dried and smoked fish, felt, honey, wax, and wine. Woollen and skins are proscribed, but nevertheless a large quantity is exported.

The exportation of the Russian Crimea consists nearly in the same articles, to which may be added, wool, sheep-skins, and lamb-skins; moroccos, and several kinds of fruits.

From the borders of Perecop as far as Koslof, are to be seen the breed of grey sheep, the skins of which are so scarce and valuable, and which is the particular produce of the Crimea. The environs of the two towns where this breed prospers best, are open and level plains, which abound in saline plants. The experiments made until the present time, for the increase of this breed in other places, has not been attended with success. The race has degenerated. Poland takes a great part of these skins, the exportation of which is more than three hundred thousand. The ordinary price of a skin is three rubles, and sometimes higher, according to the beauty and quality. It exports also annually from fifty to sixty thousand black lamb-skins, but they are not in such estimation as the grey.

The imports of the Crimea are principally unwrought cotton, and all sorts of cotton and silk manufactures in the Oriental taste; the wines of the Archipelago, sugar, coffee, and other colonial commodities.

The Crimea had formerly more than five hundred thousand inhabitants. In 1778, the Greeks and the Armenians, to the number of about thirty thousand, were sent by order of the Empress Catharine to colonize the Steppes behind the Sea of Azof. Wars and revolutions had already diminished the population, when the Russians possessed themselves of the Crimea: at that time, thousands of Tartars parted with their possessions for any thing they could get, and settled in Rometia and Natolia. The emigration continued to such a degree, that in 1798, the number of individuals of all ages and sexes, did not exceed one hundred and fifty-seven thousand one hundred and thirty-three.

This calculation mentioned by Pallas, is not, however, exact; for in 1796 the number was augmented to ninety thousand, principally with reference to the Tartars: and lastly, in 1800, the calculation was one hundred and twenty thousand Tartars, males of every age and degree, which number appears to approach nearest to the truth.

According to Peysonnel, the revenue of the khan scarcely

amounted to four millions of livres; and these revenues were charged with the salaries of the greater part of the officers of the court. The khan inherited, it is true, the estates of the nobles who died without heirs in the seventh degree, but that produced little. The princes of Moldavia and Wallachia held their fiefs by making him presents at his accession. The lands which belong to the khans were given or leased. The salt lakes belong to them by a particular tenure.

The military force kept up by Russia in the Crimea, consists of one regiment of dragoons (Smolensk), three regiments of musqueteers (Troitzky, Belevsky, Vitepsky), and a garrison regiment and battalion, distributed in the following manner :

At Perecorp, a garrison battalion.

At Koslof, a battalion of Troitzky.

At Ak-Metchet, two battalions of same.

At Sevastopol, the regiment of Belevsky, and a garrison regiment.

At Caffa, a battalion of Vitepsky.

At Kertsh, a battalion of same.

At Taman, a battalion of same.

At Carasubasar, the regiment of dragoons of Smolensk.

CHAP. X.

IMPROVEMENTS WHICH MIGHT BE EFFECTED.—ADVANTAGES WHICH RUSSIA MIGHT DERIVE FROM THE CRIMEA.—OF THE PORT OF SEVASTIOPOL, AND OF THE RUSSIAN NAVY IN THE BLACK SEA.

THE establishment of a free port in the Crimea, proper encouragement given to merchants who might settle there, industrious colonists invited from foreign countries, an augmentation of the population, whether by a transplantation of the subjects of the empire or from foreign colonies, a culture better attended to, and better managed, are the means which could bring the Crimea to the state of splendid opulence to which it is entitled by its situation, the nature of its soil, and the climate.

The culture of cotton and of the Indian corn might be very well introduced into this country, and the plantation of the mulberry increased, as well as the growth of madder and saffron. The wines of the Crimea would soon obtain merited estimation, and would supply the neighbouring places. Husbandry, the first of all the arts, would then make a rapid progress, and more abundant harvests of grain would allow of a considerable exportation. The riches contained in the bosom of the Sea of Azof, would be explored by able fishermen, and

would furnish Italy with fish, of which it consumes great quantities. The introduction of Spanish and Bulgarian rams, would furnish an abundance of wool, which would maintain the manufactories of cloth that might be established. Forest laws would prevent the devastation of wood, and would nurse the riches which Russia possesses from nature, and which she is on the point of losing. The Crimea, formerly full of timber, is threatened with a scarcity of that article: the Russians seem desirous to outdo the Tartars in the art of devastation: while the first fell beneath the axe, the finest trees for the construction of their miserable carts, the second do not content themselves with cutting the youngest wood, but wantonly tear up the saplings of five or six years growth. The mountains which surround the port of Sevastopol were covered with young trees, which have been all torn up by the sailors and soldiers. Having noticed some carts full of the roots, I expressed my indignation to an officer who was with me: "What would you do?" cried he; "the king does not find wood, and we must keep ourselves warm." To this waste of the young timber, may be added that of the damage occasioned by the numerous flocks of goats: thus the finest shapen trees are replaced by a variety of mis-shapen and stunted underwood.

An active coasting trade from the Black Sea to the Sea of Azof, would transport to Caffa all the productions of the empire; a depot of the European manufactories, and of the productions of the New World, would furnish, to advantage, Naxos and the other Ottoman provinces in Asia, with merchandize, which they could transport by the caravans of Smyrna, and by Constantinople; a part of those of India and of Persia would return by the way of Astracan to arrive at Caffa, which would once more become the centre of a considerable commerce. The religious toleration of the Russian government, and the paternal views of the emperor Alexander, would enlarge considerably by its reciprocal action, the agriculture, the industry, the commerce, and the population of the peninsula of the Crimea.

It is worthy of mention, that, having met the emperor of Russia the day after my arrival, his majesty did me the honour to make some obliging enquiries as to the object of my travels into the countries I had visited, and asked me, among other things, what I thought of the Crimea. "Sire," replied I, "nature has done every thing for it." "You are right," answered the emperor, "but we have done nothing as yet to assist nature."

The foundation of the town of Sevastopol, or Actiar, so called after a little village situated formerly to the north of the port, was laid immediately after the investment of the Crimea, on account of the goodness of the harbour. It is built in the

form of an amphitheatre to the south of the port, the length of a point of land which extends between the bay of the little port, called Juchnaia-buchta (bay of the south) and Artillery bay. This point rises gradually to the upper part of the town, where it is 180 feet in height above the level of the sea.

The town, built in streets parallel to each other, is on an ascent, and is divided into quarters by some other streets at right angles; at the point of the land is seen the house prepared for the reception of the Empress Catharine II. and immediately after the admiralty, the arsenal, and the houses of the officers of the marines: higher, the houses of the inhabitants, the market, and the Greek church; the hospitals, and the barracks for the seamen. The magazines are chiefly on the other side of the lesser port, and form a sort of suburbs, as well as the barracks of the garrison, built some distance in the upper part. Without the town, at the side of Artillery bay, are the barracks of the artillery. Near to the neighbouring bay is the quarantine, and some country houses. The town is a verst and a half in length, by two hundred toises at most in breadth. In this space is not included the barracks of the regiments, built at more than 400 toises from the upper part of the town; and those of the sailors situated as we have already said, fronting the other side of the lesser port. The naval arsenals are at Actiar, a little Tartar village situated to the north of the port, at about five versts from its entrance.

The situation of the town of Sevastopol, excludes it entirely from the interior of the peninsula, and exposes it to the danger of a failure of provisions and other articles necessary for its supply. It would have been more advantageously situated on the other side of the port. The trips, made in little shallops, which reach the town by traversing the port, cannot do it without considerable danger when the wind blows hard from the west. Provisions are very dear, with the exception of flour, rye, and fish, which are cheap: the flour and rye, because the soldiers sell what they do not consume, and the fish, because every captain sends out his shallop a fishing, and the produce is sold at the market. One of the greatest inconveniences of Sevastopol is, the want of a sufficient quantity of wholesome water. The scorbutic disorders which prevail in winter, are owing as much to the brackish waters which are furnished by some springs from the sea, as to the salt provisions which constitute chiefly the nourishment of the soldiers and seamen. The health of several thousands of men is an object worthy the solicitude of government; and the construction of an aqueduct seems to present the only means of furnishing the quantity of water necessary for the use of the inhabitants. There were

some of these, without doubt, in ancient Chersonesus; search should be made after the aqueduct of which they have already discovered traces, and it should be rebuilt.

The sea-side is the most advantageous situation in Sevastopol; where a dry soil, and wholesome air, may be found, tempered in summer by the winds, and softer in winter than in many parts of the Crimea, on account of the mountains which shelter it from the north and east.

The port of this town, one of the best perhaps in Europe, owes every thing to nature, which has alone borne the expence. The bottom is muddy towards the middle, and gravelly on the borders and in some other places. The port extends from the south-east side inland. Its length is six versts, by a little more than a verst in breadth. It is 800 toises at its entrance, and diminishes regularly from 350 to 300. It has almost in every part sufficient depth for the largest ships; and is surrounded with hills, which protect it from every wind, except those from the west. It forms four bays in the southern part, which are sheltered. There is not a shoal in the whole port, but only one small sand-bank at the entrance, before the point of land called Severnaia-Kossa.

The entrance of the port is defended by batteries placed upon the two opposite points of land, and by another constructed opposite the town. There are also two of them upon the double point of land, with a redoubt raised above. One of these batteries, which has the form of a half circle, defends at the same time the entrance of Artillery bay. It is in agitation to add a new battery to those which are already raised, and which seem insufficient; at least I have heard the officers of the marines say, that with a fair wind, a ship in full sail might enter the port without suffering from the cannon of the batteries, and a landing might be easily made on the flat shore which surrounds Sevastopol. At the mouth of the port is Quarantine bay, which extends southward about a verst in length, by 200 toises in breadth at its entrance.

The next is Artillery bay, which is not at most more than 300 toises in length. It is separated from the little port by the point of land on which the town is situated.

At about 700 toises from the exterior mouth of the port, begins South bay, Jusnaia Buchta, commonly called Little Port; it extends to the south-west more than two versts and a half into the interior of the land, and is 200 toises wide at its entrance, where it almost immediately forms a little narrow gulph: the shore is lined with habitations for the sailors. When the fleet is dismantled, the ships are towed into the little port, where they lie in safety; and when they are fitted out again for

service, they are warped into the great port, where they are brought to an anchor, in a line. On the same side, at about 900 toises from the little port, is a narrow creek of 250 toises in length, in which ships are commodiously careened and repaired.

The sea-worms, which eat into the planks of vessels, are in great quantities in the Black Sea, upon the coast of the peninsula of the Crimea. In two years they are able to destroy the sides of a ship.

These worms are four or five inches in length; the head is of the shape of an arrow, and the body consists of a whitish mucilage. The only way of destroying them, has been, until lately, to lay up the vessels for two years in the little creek of which we have just spoken, to careen them, and to pay the sides with burning pitch and juniper wood, an operation which exposes them to some danger. It was not yet thought of to copper the vessels bound to the Black Sea, but orders have been given, that henceforth they should be built with that regulation, and I have already seen three which have been done so.

The projects of aggrandisement manifested by the Empress Catharine II. have been wonderfully assisted by the possession of the Crimea. The Russians have, in that part, the finest ports in Europe, and which place them in a situation of having, in a little time, a powerful navy in the Black Sea: a good wind will carry a fleet in three days and nights, to the canal of Constantinople.

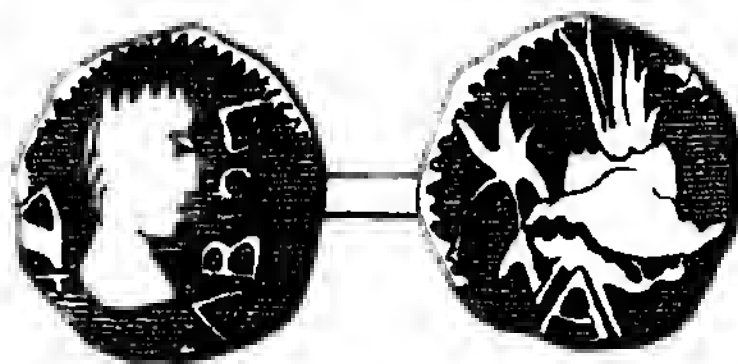
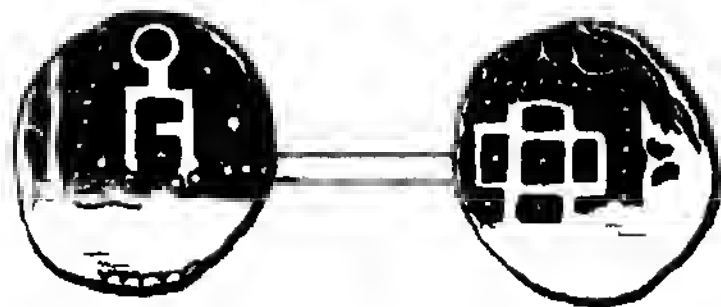
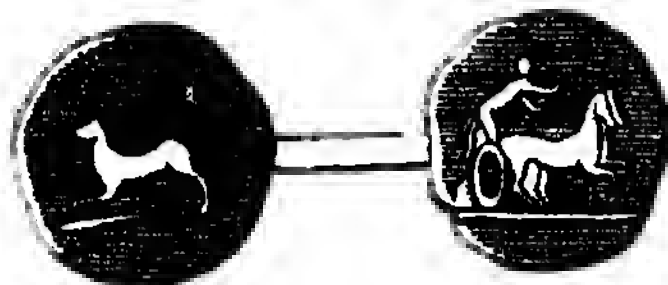
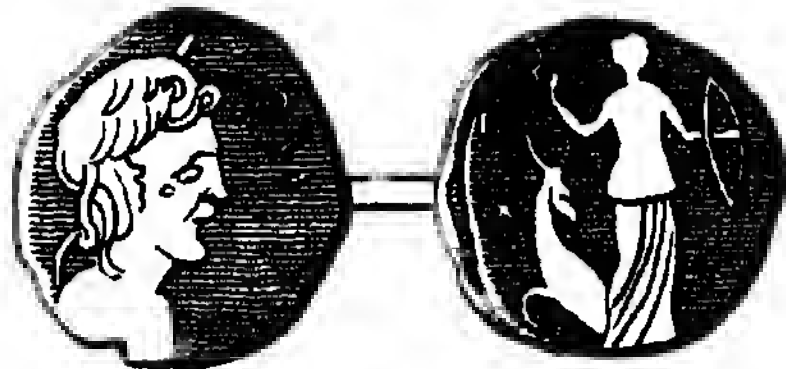
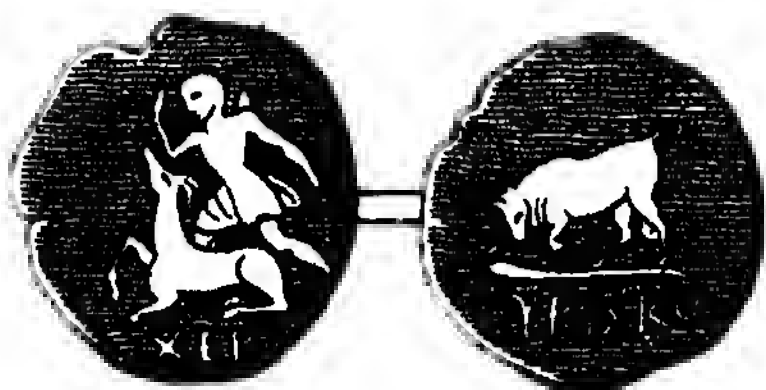
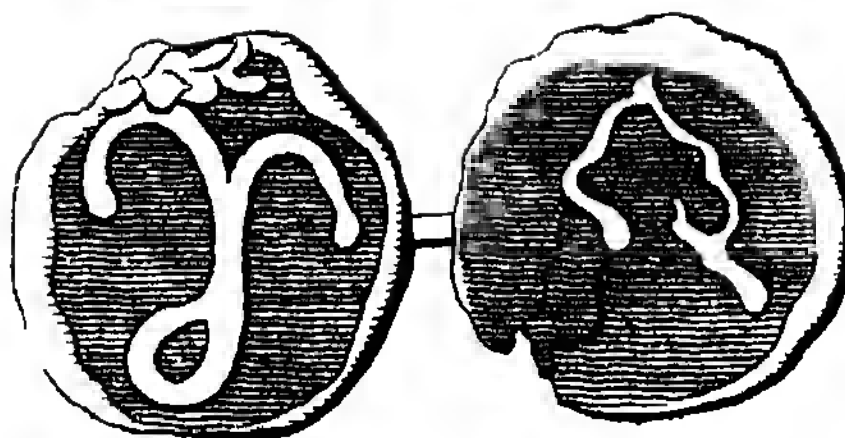
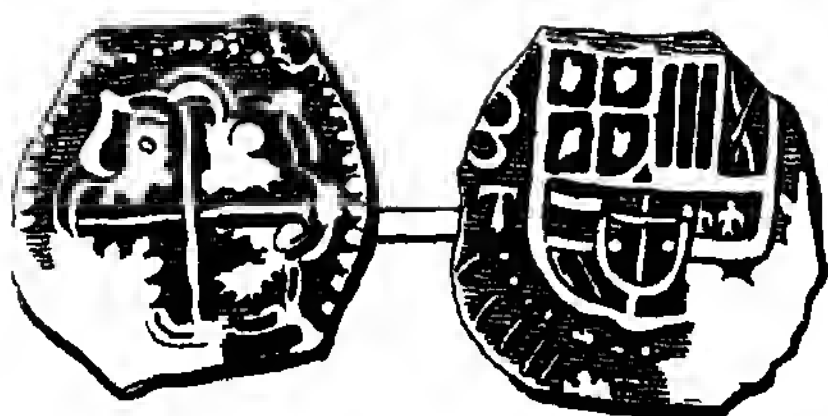
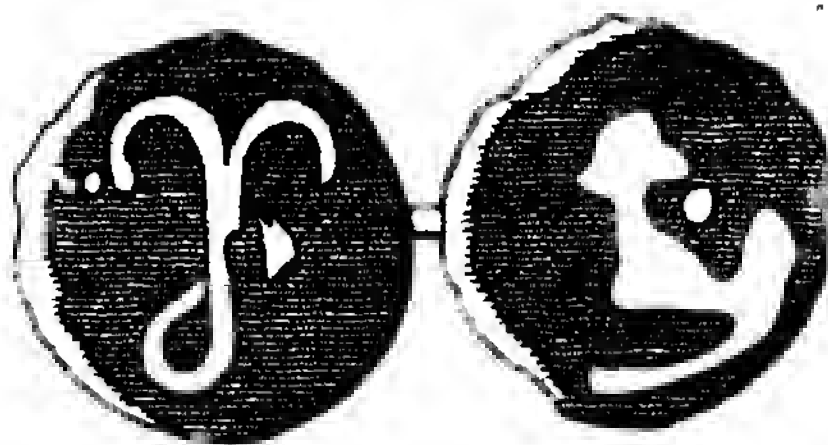
The two ancient castles which guard the entrance of the Bosphorus, are too far distant to use their cannon to advantage, and too defenceless to stand the fire from the ships of war, or even a brisk attack by land. The two new forts built in 1773, are badly planned, nor can they serve their cannon better, although situated nearer than the others. The cannon are all defective; there are numerous points of debarkation laid open in all the ancient fortresses of Europe and Asia.

The force in the Black Sea, consists of the flotilla of Nicolaïef, and of the ships stationed at Sevastopol.

The flotilla is composed of from 70 to 80 shallops, decked, and carrying guns, and some others which are row-boats. It is in a bad condition, and several shallops are totally unfit for service.

The flotilla at Sevastopol consists of four vessels of the line, and four or five frigates, and seems also but badly kept up. I have seen some old vessels condemned, and there are many others which would be altogether unfit for immediate service.

The Russian ships are usually manned at the rate of ten men



1000

a gun: the sailors comprise half of the equipment; the rest of it consists of marines, infantry, and cannoniers.

Russia, having but few merchant vessels, that nursery is wanting to supply the navy with sailors. Hence they are generally indifferent seamen. The officers are a little better, but a great number of foreigners may be reckoned among them. There exists, unhappily, a misunderstanding between the marine and land forces, which extends even to the officers.

The fleet in the Black Sea is not under the direction of the admiralty at Petersburg; it has an high admiral and an office at Nicolaief. This fleet is under the command of the Marquis de Traversey, a Frenchman, more than twenty years in the Russian service, and who is considered an excellent officer; he is low in stature, speaks with vivacity and clearness, like a man who abounds in ideas, and also has the art of associating them with facility; he has all the manners of a person well bred, and is beloved by those who serve under his command; and the courtesy with which he received me, was a proof that he had not forgotten he was born a Frenchman.

There are several of the principal officers English; as Rear-admiral Prisman, General Cobley, commandant of Odessa; General Fench, governor-general at Caffa, &c. &c. I ought to acknowledge with gratitude, that the title of Frenchman furnished me with a high recommendation to the military and marine officers. I wish that I could say as much of the hospitality of the gentlemen in civil employments. I ought, however, to except from this remark M. de Miloradovitch, governor of Taurida, who afforded me a most flattering reception.

CHAP. X.

ON THE COINS AND MEDALS OF THE CRIMEA, WITH THE
NOTE OF M. M. LANGLES AND MILLIN THEREON.

AT my return from the Crimea, from whence I had brought different pieces of money, and a quantity of medals, I requested M. Langles, member of the Institution, and librarian for Oriental manuscripts, and M. Milin, member also of the Institution, and keeper of the medals in the Imperial library, to examine them, and to inform me if I had been fortunate enough to have collected any thing curious: he assured me that the coins were altogether unknown in France, and that several of the medals were valuable.

These two gentlemen were of opinion that it would be proper to have engravings made of the coins and medals; and the degree of interest which was attached to my fortunate research, engaged

me to cause it to be done, and to place them in the rich and curious collection in the library of his royal and imperial majesty.

M. M. Jangles and Millin have done me the honour to make some historical notes on these coins and medals, and I subjoin, for the satisfaction of my readers: the following from M. Jangles. The principal pieces of money have all, except one, been struck at Bachtchisarai, in the year 1191 of the Hegira, (1777 of the vulgar æra) according to the date of the Arabic inscription.

It bears consequently the name of the same sovereign.

KHAN CHAHYN GUERAI, FBN AHMED GUERAI, SULTAN.
The Sovereign Chahyn Guerai, son of Ahmed Guerai, prince.

The signification given to the words Khan and Sultan, require some explanation.

In Turkey, in Arabia, in Persia, and even in India, the title of sultan exclusively belongs to the reigning prince, and is synonymous to the words monarch and sovereign, whilst a governor of a province, and even a simple officer of state, takes the name of khan. Among the Tartars on the other side, a directly contrary usage prevails, and the sovereign only has a right to the distinction of khan, which he places before his proper names, either it is because the word is originally Tartar, and is to be found, indeed, in the Calamic dialects, Monghol, Mantchoo, &c., while sultan is Arabian, or because the happy Temoudjin adopted that qualification when he changed his name to take that of Djenghiz, (and that — “in the midst of a general resurrection, having, at his right, the sword of vengeance, and the seal of power at his left; upon his head the crown of the universe: he seated himself on the throne of the empire of the Tartars, according to the history of the migration of Djenghiz or Temuris Khan, and of the fragments of the cock of that conqueror and legislator in the universal history of Machboud) among the same people, the word sultan has only a secondary distinction.

Chahyn Guerai, in the impression of these coins, was descended from Djenghiz Khan; he was the thirty-ninth and last khan of the Crimea, according to the chronological account given of those sovereigns: he ascended the throne the 4th of March, 1777, and was deposed in consequence of the treaty entered into at Constantinople between Russia and the Turks, the 10th (23) June 1783, and ratified the 21st of September (1st October) of the same year. Soon afterwards he died a violent death, and his head was sent to the Porte.

This weak and unfortunate descendant of the great Djenghiz Khan, was not destitute of talents, during the short space of his

in which he attempted several great innovations, which are spoken of in the notice of his life. We shall confine ourselves to the mention of that of the coinage of money. Until the time of his accession to the throne, all the coin in circulation in the Crimea, had borne the name of the Ottoman emperor, and was coined, as I believe, in Turkey. Chahyn-Gueran was desirous that it should be struck in his own country. This work, which was not done without great expence, was entrusted to a German, a very intelligent artist, it is easy to judge from the execution of the pieces which have come under my observation. The characters are drawn in a superior manner, and engraved with great exactness, but in rendering to the German artist employed by Chahyn-Gueran all the justice which he is due, we cannot help regretting, from the number of pieces worth of praise, those of an irregular form, and which are badly struck, that is to say, a coin of Billon, (or below the standard) called aspic by the Europeans, and *aqitch*, (or little white piece) by the Turks. It is worth about a centime, valuing the true piece at one frank and fifty centimes according to its intrinsic value.

Three aspics or *aqitch* make a *puah*. The one before us, was struck at Constantinople, in 1171 of the Hegira, (1757-8 of the vulgar era.)

Five *puah* make a *bechliq*, that is to say, a piece of five *puah*, because, in fact, the *bechliq* is worth five *puah* of Crimea.

Two *bechliq* make a *onlong*, or piece of ten *puah*, is the denomination itself indicates.

Two *onlong* make a *minnyliq*, piece of twenty *puah*, or denomination. The two we have noticed were struck at Bichitch-sun, in the same year 1191 of the Hegira (1777 of the vulgar era) is the inscription indicates, but the reverse is plain, containing the title of divan, and in other pieces, bears the title of *or* *explier*, in which may be made out by a comparative examination, the word Chahyn-Gueran-Ahmed.

Two *minnyliq* make a *ghanch*, which, called by the Europeans *pristic*. At the epoch of its issue, and now called *ghanch*, the *ghronche* or *pristic* was worth two *bechliq* pieces. But the Ottoman sultans Abdul Hamid, and Selim III. during their reigns, so much altered the money that now the *pristic* is valued at more than one frank, fifty centimes.

A *pristic* and a half form a piece named *alunchiq*, that is, $\frac{3}{2}$ *pristic*, a piece of 150 *puah*.

Beside the pieces mentioned, M. P. de V. has from him over some other *pristic* which were made in the year 1177. They can no longer prove a *pristic* as it is not the *pristic* as it is

pieces of five or six kopeks, they bear the same inscriptions as we have described, except that upon one of them we read Kaffali and Kaffa, instead of Bachtchisarai; we know, indeed, that Chahyn-Guerai caused money to be coined in those towns alternately.

M. Millin's notes on the medals found in the Crimea, are as follows:

The medals of the Chersonesus Taurica, and of the European Sarmatia, are as yet but little known. There is no doubt but that if they were sought after with diligence, a great number would be found; but the clumsiness of this coinage does not excite the desire of collecting them: nevertheless, they would assist to throw some light on the ancient history of the country. Pembroke, Pellerin, and M. Sestini, have discovered several; since their time, M. De Wavel has published an account of some. Those which M. Reuilly procured during his stay in Crimea, are almost all unknown; which proves how much the research of these medals would be a labour of utility and interest.

The two first belong to Chersonesus. There are, as yet, but few known of that city: they are, therefore, an important acquisition; one of them is extremely curious; Reuilly found it fifty paces from the spot where it is believed stood the temple of Diana. The subject is interesting: the goddess diest in a tunic tucked up, is about to kill a hind which she has run down in the chase; her left knee is supported on the back of the animal; beneath are the characters XEP. At the reverse is an ox cornu-pete, that is to say, threatening with his horns. In the exergue are the characters ΤΡΙΣΚΟ. This name cannot have an allusion to the Tauricus, the inhabitants of which were called Tauri, and not Taurisci. It is that of a magistrate, who probably was called ΣΤΡΙΣΚΟΣ, Syrisus. Upon a medal discovered by Eckhel, *numi anecdoti*, we see also on one side the head of Diana, and on the reverse, the bull cornu-pete, with the word ΑΓΑΣΙΚ, which is also the name of a magistrate. Upon another, in the cabinet of the Countess of Bentuek, is the word ΕΥΔΡΟΜΟ, Eudromus.

The next medal, which is also of Chersonesus, although more defaced, is of still more importance. They had not as yet discovered any other than the autonomous medals of that city: this one is the first that has been known with the head of the emperor. The side of the face is almost destroyed by time, but there may be distinguished the remainder of the head, and the letters ΟΥΗ, which shew that it belonged to Septimus, or to Alexander Severus, but more probably to the first: on the reverse is Diana standing, she has the right hand raised; in the left she carries a bow; at her feet is a stag, or rather an antelope, for the horns are not branched; around are the characters ΧΙΡ.

The three medals which follow are of European Sarmatia. One of them presents a large head, with the inscription ABIONH , that is to say, OABIONTOAIE , or OABIONTOAPILON , the town of Olbiopolis; behind the head there is a monogram; on the reverse, is a barbarous figure much effaced, where I think may be distinguished also, confused traces of an eagle devouring a fish. M. de Waxel, in his collection of antiquities found on the shore of the Black Sea, has a very large medal of about five inches in diameter, where may be noticed the same design, and where he thinks he can discover also the traces of an eagle's form. This medal was found in the ruins near Adjeder, or Ovidiopole; another was discovered in the ruins of Olvio, of the same dimensions as the preceding; and the type of the eagle is better perceived. These accounts convince me that the medal mentioned by Waxel of the character with the one we describe, is of Olbiopolis.

We have just described the medals of a large size; we shall now speak of those which are, on the contrary, very small, and the only ones which are known of the kind: on the face of one of these is a head, respecting which we could distinguish nothing further. On the reverse is a fish, and the retrograde characters of the word OIAA , Olbio, can be made out. On the front of another is also a head much defaced; and, on the reverse, the same fish, with the letters AB , which make part of the word OABIO . It is of an irregular form.

Two other medals were found at Panticapus; however, as they are without inscriptions, we cannot decide, with certainty, that they are of that city. The quiver is to be noticed as often on the medals of Phanagoria, of Heraclea, and upon those of Moesia Inferior, as upon those of Panticapus. These two medals have, on the front, the head of Bacchus crowned with leaves of laurel and of ivy, which would occasion one to believe that they were of Dionysiopolis, a city situated on the Pontus Euxinus, which received its name (Town of Bacchus) from there being a statue here of that god which had been brought thither by sea. Pan, as well as Bacchus, has also his head crowned with ivy.

The large quiver, which is on the reverse of these medals, serves to contain the bow and arrows. It is ornamented with the figure of the oistodoche, or case designed purposely for the placing of arrows. These medals have each a different monogram, which is unfavourable to the opinion of those who think that the monogram on the medal, in which we distinguish the gAP , means a city called Pharnacia.

On the medal found at Balackava, we discover the figure of a man, who appears to be in a chariot; and on the reverse, a dog running. M. de Waxel speaks of one nearly like it.

There are numerous medals of Sappus, a city of Paphlagonia,

which had become the residence of the kings of Pontus after Pharnacia had been taken from them: several are known to have, like this, on one side, the head of Jupiter, and on the reverse, the eagle perched on a thunder-bolt, with the word ΣΙΝΟΙΗ in the exergue. One has in the field the letters ΡΚΣ, which indicate an epoch that must have been after the æra which we believe to have been the vulgar one at the Pontus and Bosphorus, and which, according to Carey, Tielick, and Eckhel, begun at the year of Rome 467. The epoch of our medal is that of the year 223 of that æra, 680 of Rome, the 41st year of the reign of Mithridates VI. 74 years before the vulgar æra. Mithridates VI. was the king who put himself to death the year of Rome 631, 63 years before the vulgar æra, that he might not add to the triumph of the Romans, as son Pharnaces had betrayed him in the moment when he would have carried war into the heart of their capital.

This piece is, however, still more curious, as we had not yet had any autonomous medal of Sinopus which bore a date, and that there is only one known besides of Mithridates VI.

Two others of these medals are commonly known in the Crimea. They have been cast, and are of an uneven shape, but of which the unevenness bears no comparison with those of the antique coins of the same country. They bespeak rather the ignorance and barbarity in which that country was plunged at the time it was under the dominion of the last emperors of Constantinople. I believe that the emblems on them are those of Christianity: on one side is a cross, symbol of Salvation, on the other, the anchor, which is that of Faith.

The two last pieces are coins which were in circulation in the Crimea at the time the Genoese were masters of that country, and had established commerce. The coin which was found at Panticapæon, it represents a sacrifice which is offered before the portico of a temple. The victim must be observable who holds a crown, he carries a knife also. The popa carries the club to fell the victim; a young priest, Camillus, holds a vase full of fire, another priest carries a torch; the pontif is at a distance, his head covered, behind him, is a woman, for whom the sacrifice is offered. The intaglio is charmingly executed: however, it is not antique; it is easy to discover the style of the sixteenth century, called by artists the Cinque Cento, and the subject is probably copied after a bas-relief antique. It is an error of some travellers to believe, that every thing dug out of the earth in these countries which they visit, is of antiquity; but they are not so on that account. They are often brought from Egypt, Greece, and Asia Minor, engraved stones which are evidently modern. The intaglio which we have described is of that class.

CHAP. XI.

ON THE COMMERCE OF THE BLACK SEA.

THE storms frequent in the Black Sea, and the savage state of the people inhabiting its coasts, prevented the Greeks for a long time from visiting its shores. The expedition of the Argonauts is the first trace of navigation and commerce in that sea, which antiquity has transmitted to us.

This trade took place principally in the Oriental parts, but notwithstanding the establishment of several colonies upon its coasts, it was inconsiderable during the first ages of Greece, and under the empire of the Romans. It did not begin to flourish until the time of the crusades, when the Latins possessed themselves of Constantinople: at that time the Genoese and the Venetians carried on this trade with such considerable advantage, that the conquest of Egypt by the Arabs having entirely ruined the ancient commerce of Alexandria, the merchandise of India opened itself a new way to the European markets; they went thither sometimes by the Indies, and the Russian Sea, or were transported by caravans across Georgia and Mingrelia; sometimes by going up the Persian gulph, the Tygris, or the Euphrates; they went, by way of Armenia, to Trebizond, whither the Genoese and the Venetians went to meet them • for the purpose of supplying Europe with their commodities.

Jealousy, the inevitable consequence of the great advantages this commerce procured, was the occasion of some bloody wars between the Venetians and the Genoese, which terminated in the last becoming the masters; by contributing to the overthrow of the dominion of the Latins at Constantinople, profiting dextrously by the favour or the weakness of the Greek emperor, they obtained from them such advantages, that they had no longer any rivals. To secure to themselves this exclusive commerce, they fortified their settlement at Pera, established colonies on the coasts, principally in Cinnea, and put their factories in a state of defence: Caffa was the principal city of their commerce with the East, and the port at which was deposited all the merchandise which had been transported to the Black Sea. The merchandise of India, Persia, and Arabia, came to As-

tracan, went again up the Volga, was carried afterwards by land as far as the Don, distant about sixty versts, conveyed by that river to Azof, and thence embarked for Kaffa. The Genoese procured to themselves immense riches, and put themselves in a situation, notwithstanding the smallness of their territory, to hold rank among the first of the maritime powers. They enjoyed these advantages until the taking of Constantinople by Mahomet the Second, of which almost the immediate consequence was, their expulsion from the Crimea. With the annihilation of the power of the Genoese, ended the commerce of the Black Sea.

It is to be observed, that, at this epoch, the re-establishment of the ancient route by Alexandria, which took place under Tala-Eddin, had already turned that source of riches.

The progress of navigation, by the discovery of the route to India, and America, gave a new spring to the mercantile spirit of the Europeans, lessening, in some degree, the regret which the loss of this ancient seat of their prosperity had occasioned, and turning their thoughts to the means of restoring that advantage. It was not until the beginning of this century that Peter the First, desirous to create commerce, unknown in his vast empire, saw the immense advantage it would derive from the possession of some ports in the Black Sea: he succeeded in the acquisition of Azof; but the misfortunes which he met with afterwards, and the peace of Pruth, was the occasion of his surrendering his conquests, and the advantages that might have been derived from them. Catharine the Second following the steps of this great legislator of Russia, had the glory of accomplishing the design his genius had conceived.

After two long wars, the Turks found themselves compelled to surrender to Russia a part of Lesser Tartary, and, at length, the Crimea; to allow them to establish in that quarter a navy, and to permit their flag the free passage of the Dardanelles.

Austria, the ally of Russia, has partaken of this last advantage, and these two nations alone carried on the commerce, always inconsiderable for want of means and of concurrence, until the time when, after the conquest of Egypt, the French government obtained, by its treaty of peace with the Porte, the free navigation of the Black Sea. It has been granted with the like facility to the other principal powers of Europe in such an extent, that the commerce of that sea may be considered to be absolutely free. It embraces that of the Crimea, that of the shores of the sea of Azof, and those of the Abazes; that of Natolia, and of the Ottoman provinces of Asia, of Romelia, of Bulgaria, of Wallachia, and of Moldavia, and, above all, that of Poland and of Russia.

The Crimea is advantageously situated for the purposes of commerce. That peninsula surrounded by the Black Sea, and by the sea of Azof, in which the Don empties itself, is able to receive in its ports, principally in those of Kertch, and of Caffa, the merchandises of the Indies, of Persia, and of Siberia, in the same manner as in the times of the Genoese. These merchandises, which consist in raw iron, copper, spars, pitch, skins, can come from Siberia, by following the course of the Kama, and of the Volga, unto Dubotka, or by crossing the isthmus sixty verstes; which separate the Volga from the Don; and by being shipped at Katchahnskaya, these merchandises come down by the Don, to the sea of Azof, to be carried to Tagamo, or directly to Kertsh, or Caffa. Butter and fat come also by this route, and with considerable profit to the traders. The sail-cloth of the interior part of Russia, the hemp, the linsens, of which there are great abundance, above all in the departments of Penza, of Nishnei-Novogorod, and of Woronesh, have a short passage to make, to come down by some lesser rivers to the Don.

It is necessary to the commerce of France to establish marts in the Black Sea, of the different merchandises for which there would be a demand in the neighbouring countries, and in return it could receive the productions of the country, at a price which would turn the advantage in our favour.

It, from the situation of the colonies, we were prevented from supplying sugars, coffee, and other colonial commodities, of which the provinces of the Black Sea have a great consumption, our alliance with Spain could place us in the situation of trading them from their ports, and particularly from that of Cadix. It may be useful to observe that the port of Trieste, which was nothing thirty years ago, owes its importance entirely to the colonial merchandises with which it has furnished the provinces situated on the shores of the Black Sea. A depot of the merchandises which Austria draws at present from the canavans of Smyrna, and by Constantinople, might be more advantageously situated in the Crimea, if a privilege to remove it could be obtained from the court of Russia, or if a free port was permanently established. In taking by this mart the silks of Bruse and of Persia, it would turn to the account of Russia herself. It is to be remarked that the drugs which came from the confines of Persia, would not be sent into Russia by Tiflis, and from thence to the coast of Asia, nor embarked at the Persian Gulph, and return afterwards by the Baltic, after having made, as one may say, the tour of the world.

The situation of France gives it a superiority of position in Europe, and its interests are in unison with those of Russia. These two states possess most of the articles which are the objects of exchange, and are the only countries which can satisfy their mu-

tual wants without the intervention of strangers. A direct and reciprocal commerce would increase their sphere of action, and their particular advantages; but a great many obstacles are as yet in the way, before this commerce can take the range of which it is capable.

NOTES ON THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE CRIMEA.

Odessa is situated between the Niester and Nieper, to the west of a gulph which forms the Black Sea. Its port is easy of entrance, and has an excellent anchorage, while its bottom is so smooth, that the anchors of ships are obliged to be raised from time to time, in order to prevent them from sticking too fast.

Odessa enjoys a wholesome air, of a mild temperature; the vast plains by which it is surrounded, are uncommonly fertile, but the want of hands causes them to remain uncultivated. Those extensive and barren Steppes, in which the horizon alone terminates the view, are entirely deprived of wood; and hence the town is in want of fuel. The water is of a bad quality, and is extremely scarce in summer.

When the carriers bring corn into the interior, they are often in danger of losing their oxen, of which they sometimes possess two or three thousand; but this devastation might be prevented, by digging a greater number of wells.

This town, which has risen, as it were, from the bowels of the earth, already contains more than 800 houses. They are well built, and the streets are wide, but the dust and mud render them very inconvenient. The population of Odessa amounts to about 4,500 inhabitants, of which Italians, Jews and Greeks form two thirds. It contains five commercial houses, viz. one French, one English, one Italian, and two German, with a few brokers' residences.

Odessa, whose existence was scarcely known eight years ago, and whose bay was frequented only by a few Turkish vessels, received in 1802, more than 300 ships, and in 1803, when I left it, nearly 400 vessels had arrived to take in cargoes of corn, which had been supplied from Podolia and the Ukraine to the amount of 1,000,000 rubles.

Some time since there was a great emigration from Bulgaria. Russia favoured the exiles, and allowed the inhabitants every facility for leaving a country, where they were exposed to all sorts of vexations. Those who were at Odessa are to be distributed over the Steppes of New Russia, and the government affords each family a house, a pair of oxen, and a plough; they

also receive a trifle of money, and are exempted from taxes or furnishing recruits, for the space of 25 years.

Nicolaief, which was founded about thirteen years ago by an individual named Pallerf, is situated on the Bog, at the part where it receives the Ingul. The town is built in the modern style, the houses are of stone, and the streets are wide. It, however, wants the two principal necessities of life, water and fuel. The winds that blow from the sea, render the waters of the Bog and the Ingul blackish. The harbour contains a flotilla, which consists of about an hundred vessels, mostly old and in a bad state. Although the fleet of the black Sea lie in the port of Sevastapol in the Crimea, the admiralty office is at Nicolaief, which necessarily retards the naval operations.

Cherson was founded in 1774, in $46^{\circ} 38'$ latitude: it is on the western bank of the Nieper, about 100 versts from its mouth in the sea, and 40 versts above the Bog.

The town is agreeably situated on a little eminence, at the bottom of which runs the Nieper, its width is about seven versts, and it forms several small isles, which are covered with shrubs. The principal inconveniences at Cherson are the insupportable dust which continually blows in clouds by the wind, the excessive quantity of mud in winter, and the innumerable swarms of gnats, which are produced in the marshes. The town is defended by a fortress, which occupies a great extent of ground, and contains some good barracks.

The Population of Cherson amounts to ten or eleven thousand. Several ships of war and merchant vessels are built in its docks. Those which belong to the crown are situated along the Nieper, and the grand depot of timber is on the opposite bank. The rope-walk is excellent, as are the ropes and cables that are made in it. The merchants' harbour is at the end of the town, and the quay is built on piles.

There is a lazaretto in one of the isles of the Nieper but the quarantine of Cherson having been suppressed, it is now useless.

The commerce of Cherson is inconsiderable; it contains but two or three French houses: the suppression of the lazaretto causes all the vessels to take the route to Odessa, and the merchants of Cherson are obliged to send thither all their goods, in order to profit by the advantage which the vessels derive by taking in their cargoes while under quarantine. A coasting trade is about to be established along the Black Sea, which will produce much benefit; for often one town contains a superabundance of necessary articles, while another is in want of them and this want of communication causes a fictitious scarcity which is very injurious to commerce and agriculture.

There are vast plains near Cherson, on which great herds of oxen are fattened; they are sold at a low price, and their meat might be salted, and exported to great advantage.

Kaffa, otherwise Theodosia, is situated in the Crimea, in the latitude $44^{\circ} 58'$.—The Roadstead is secure from winds, except those from the north and south-west. Ships anchor very near the shore in a slimy bottom. This town, which was of such great importance in the time of the Genoese power, and whose port, at that period, was the principal depôt of the commerce of the Black Sea, now contains nothing more than heaps of ruins. Its great population has disappeared, and a small number of merchant-ships can now scarcely find cargoes at it. About an hundred houses, partly inhabited by Greeks, are all that remain of that once powerful town. Fishing, in the Bay of Kaffa, is carried on to some extent; and the *Pêchus Merides* affords a great quantity of sturgeons, the spawn of which, when salted, is called caviar, and forms a considerable article of trade.

Taganog is situated on a tongue of land, at the extremity of the sea of Azof. This place might become important for commerce, by the navigation of the Don, and the proximity of the Volga, by which an easy communication might be carried on with Moscow and Astrachan. It was fortified by order of Peter the Great. The advantages of Taganog are, however, counterbalanced by several inconveniences: the sea of Azof, in the strait of Taman, is so shallow, that it will not admit vessels which draw more than eight or nine feet water, while its numerous sand-banks, and violent currents, render its navigation long and dangerous. Throughout the winter season it is impassable, on account of the ice.

The commerce of this town is extensive. It consists in corn, leather, hemp, sail-cloth, tallow, tobacco, horse-hair, caviar, iron, salt-petre, hides, &c. In 1803, about 200 ships entered its port.

The population of Taganog, may amount to about 6000 souls, including the seamen, and the garrison. Its environs are uninhabited, though there are great inducements to emigrants, to arrive, and cultivate its fertile soil.

When the treaty of Amiens was concluded, I finished my journey, and returned to France, strongly impressed with the natural and commercial advantages of most of the parts which I had visited.

TRAVELS
TO
HYERES,
IN THE SOUTH OF FRANCE,

PERFORMED
IN THE SPRING OF 1806.

BY
CHRISTIAN AUGUSTUS FISCHER,
AUTHOR OF TRAVELS IN SPAIN, A JOURNEY TO MONTPEL-
LIER, &c. &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN.

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1806.

AUTHOR'S PREFACE

IN the present work, which is a continuation of my former Journey to Montpellier, I have been equally strict and scrupulous in my enquiries and descriptions; and as I have to contend with a host of physicians, against a universally established prejudice, have been no less careful to strengthen every one of my assertions with incontrovertible proofs. Should the number of deluded patients who flock to these places for relief, be thereby diminished, I shall have attained one principal object in the communication of my sentiments, on an error to which I am well persuaded that numbers have fallen victims. At the same time I have not lost sight of those particularities which afford an interest to the descriptions of every traveller, and I flatter myself that no class of readers will lay this book down totally unsatisfied.

TRAVELS

TO

H Y E R E S.

LETTER I.

LYONS, November 8, 1803.

I Left Paris six days ago, impelled by an irresistible instinct towards the south of France. The former Catinat and Bourbonnais through which I passed, afforded but little worthy of observation. These countries were altogether poor and thinly inhabited. The first morning we stopped a moment at the wretched town of Essonne, in the afternoon at the pretty Fontainebleau, and in the evening at the gloomy Nemours. This is the substance of my first day's journey.

The next morning we went through a miserably barren country as far as Noyon, where every thing betrayed the utmost penury. We took our dinner here, and were entertained by the vivacious conversation of a travelling wine merchant from St. Peré. He displayed all his samples of wines before us, and drew a parallel between them and the politics of the different courts, which was not altogether without justice.

"The policy of the French," said he, "may be compared to *champagne rosé*; that of the English seems to me like bad Port-wine*; I should designate the policy of Austria by Tokay; and that of Prussia by the gemine oil of Perdrix: but the policy of the Russian cabinet," cried he, lifting up his forefingers, "is compounded of all these wines."

In the evening we arrived at Cosnes, pleasantly situated in the neighbourhood of the Loire, which is the source of its opulence. The inn was good, the wine excellent, and the company truly agreeable. The conversation was enlivened by a succession of anecdotes, in which Buonaparte was always the subject. One of these, which refers to his stay in this place, must not be passed over unnoticed.

The First Consul taking up his night's lodging here, with a numerous retinue, on his return from Lyons, the landlady, as usual on such occasions, proportioning her demand to the grandeur of her guests, made a bill of fifty louis d'ors. The exorbitance of the sum occasioned so violent a contention between the marshal and the woman as to attract the notice of the Consul.—"Mais le Brm, qu'est ce que c'est donc?" when in-

* We confess, we see neither justice nor wit in this simile; but the author is a panegyrist of Buonaparte, as our readers will soon have an opportunity of observing.

formed of the subject. "Mais, madame, il faut corriger ce compte," he cried out to her from the carriage. "Pardonnez moi, citoyen premier consul, le ci-devant roi paya toujours autant," was the next and just reply of the ingenious and insinuating landlady. "Qu'on donne cent louis à madame," rejoined Buonaparte; and it must be confessed, that this little trait does no less credit to his duplicity than his ostentation.

On approaching the mountains we experienced a sensible change in the temperature. A thick chilling mist darkened the atmosphere, and the trees seemed to have been long stripped of their verdant cloathing. We dined at Nevers, which is famous for its hand-ware, and slept at Moulins, which has very good cutlery. At both places the inn was filled with female vendors, many of whom were not without selective charms.

Our fourth day's journey was extremely unpleasant. Raw weather, bad roads, a miserable country, wretched places, and every trace of extreme nakedness, poverty, and bigotry. This scene was agreeably contrasted with the opulence and industry of Rouane, where we arrived in the evening. This considerable town is situated on the Loire, and is the mart for all the merchandise passing between Lyons and Nantes.

The whole appearance of the inn declared its intercourse with two considerable cities. The miserable kitchen furniture was exchanged for an abundance of porcelain and tawane; the curtains of coarse baize for those of cotton; and the woollen blankets for a light coverlet of silk. The pretty corsets and handsome chignons of the girls bespoke the finery of the town.

The next morning brought us to the picturesque mountains of Forez and Beaujolais; where the pure balsamic air, the grand masses of porphyry, the little cascades, and the fresh vegetation of woods, called to mind the scenery of the Alps. On the summit of the mountain stood the *maison à la Fontaine*, enlivened by the brilliancy of a warm southern sun. We breakfasted in the open air, and dwelt with delight on the enchanting view of the Saone vale.

With cautious steps we now proceeded down the steep and dangerous declivity, and arrived safely in half an hour at Tarare. The difference in the vegetation here is truly striking. The trees still retained the beautiful foliage of the autumn, and the meadows were still bedecked with a fresh and luxuriant verdure. Tarare itself, with its balconies and flat roofs, its paper windows and lichen doors, already announced our entrance into the south of France.

The road from here to Lyons was uninterruptedly beautiful, particularly by Arbrück, where it is surrounded by charming acclivities. Beyond Echelles, Mount Pila, and a part of the Savoy Alps, clearly opened to our view; and farther on we

could command a prospect of the whole plain of Lyons, with its two grand rivers and its chain of fruitful hills. At seven in the evening we reached the second capital of France, enveloped in mist and smoke.

LIBLR II

LYONS, November 1, 5

THIS town deserves particular notice from its remarkable situation, being separated by a stream formed from the confluence of the two rivers the Rhone and Saone, and extending itself along each of the opposite bank, on one side rising a hill, and on the other sinking into a valley. The division called *la ville de Rhone* is distinguished by many fine and modern edifices, but the superb facade belonging to the Belevue, demolished in 1793, is not yet rebuilt. The other part, called *la ville de Saone*, is old and irregular. The population of Lyons is estimated at about 80,000 souls.

Its northern latitude is 46, and the climate by no means pleasant or mild, which is attributable to the vicinity of the town with the Alps. The winters are rather severe, and the cold sometimes rises to 14 and even to 18 deg. Reum and the frost frequently continues till April. The summers are insupportably sultry, the heat sometimes rising to 31°. The autumn alone is temperate, but the chilling fogs commence with November.

The west and north west, are the most prevalent winds, and are usually attended with heavy rains, which fall from 55 to 57 cubic inches annually. These are succeeded by the south wind, blowing a hurricane through the valley of the Rhone. The mild and salubrious breezes of the east wind are very much felt. In addition to this we take the other local disadvantages of Lyons, its foul exhalations from the morasses, the smoke of its numerous manufactories and frequent fogs into the computation, it must be readily granted, that Lyons is a very improper residence for an invalid.

In other respects it certainly has some advantages. Everything tends to keep down the price of provisions. The soil is fertile, the conveyance easy, and the mercantile position of the town highly advantageous. To travellers I should recommend the “*Prie Bellacorn*,” where both beds and apartments are remarkably clean, and the “*Hotel au Parc*,” containing 5000 bed rooms with stove. It may not be amiss to observe, that in all the inns in Lyons management is combined with one person for lodging, and one for board, but those who intend to

remain any time would do well to board in a private house, for which he must pay from two to six and twenty livres per month ; or to take a furnished apartment (on the quay if he can) for which he will pay from twenty to four and twenty livres per month, and board where he pleases. At the Hotel au Parc dinner may be had for a Caroline and a half per month.

The water of the Rhone is preferable to all other. The best wines come from Champagne, Julienas, Blacey, Millery, Sainte-foy, Saint-Colombe, and may be had at reasonable prices ; but the more choice wines of every sort are sold by Chapelot and Boudin. Mineral and other waters are sold by Mess. Paul and comp. and P. J. Antoine, apothecaries. Vegetables and fruit, butter and cheese, from Mont d'Or, of an excellent quality, are sold very cheap.

The promenades are, the groves of la place Bellacour ; the quay of the Rhone, (with a fine view) ; the grove Perrache, between the Saone and the Rhone ; and the level of the hill Foudieres, which commands a view of the town, the vale and grand chain of mountains extending to Monthlanc ; but the romantic scenery of the castle Pierre has not existed since the year 1793.

The island Barbe, to the north of the town, diversified by rocks and clusters of trees, deserves the attention of the traveller. Beyond that the little village of St. Bumbert, embosomed in vineyards and chesnut plantations ; and lastly, the Alpine mountain, " Mont Cindre," which affords the most enchanting prospect.

The right bank of the Rhone, to the south of the town, affords an infinite variety of promenades, which may be extended over the hills, and along the most luxuriant vegetation, as far as St. Foy, &c.

These promenades will prove peculiarly interesting to naturalists of every description, from the curious plants, insects, &c. which are here found in such infinite variety.

The lovers of reading may indulge their various tastes at the public library, (or ci-devant grand college) containing 90,000 volumes, which is open every day from ten to one ; besides which, Buysset, in the rue Clement, supplies an extensive society with journals and papers ; and le Clerc, in the place des Terreaux, has a considerable circulating library.

The social amusements of Lyons are not inferior to those in any place of equal magnitude. It has two theatres, which form an agreeable diversity with its concerts and assemblies. The merchants have also a distinct club and reading society, which is composed of agreeable and obliging individuals. In fact, the Lionese partake much more of the Swiss and German, than the

French character, owing, without doubt, to the very close intercourse subsisting between these several counties. Whether they do not betray a slight tincture of meanness? but let us not forget that this is inseparable from their avocation.

LETTER III.

SITUATION OF THE MANUFACTORIES OF LYONS.—COMMUNICATIONS BY LAND AND WATER.—PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS.—EDUCATION.—LITERARY SOCIETY.—INSTITUTIONS FOR THE RELIEF OF THE DISTRESSED.—THEIR CALCULATION.—PUBLIC PAPERS.—DETAILS.

LYONS, *November 1803.*

LYONS is properly a manufacturing town; and it was with a lively interest I made myself acquainted with the various branches which occupied the industrious class of its inhabitants. To this end I visited first the silk manufactories, and their several inferior departments for velvet, gauze, lace, &c. and also the manufactories of gold-wire, embroidery, &c. but every where they complained of the want of demand; this may be partly owing to the revolution, but much more to the change in the taste of the Parisians. Were there but a splendid consular court, all these manufactories would again suddenly flourish.

The hat-manufactories, however, would not be so easily revived; the former great exportations being diminished by the dearth of rabbit-skins, and a number of mercantile prohibitions. With the tanning it is still worse, since this branch has taken a quite different direction. The cotton spinning and manufactories for hangings and India products, appear, on the contrary, in a more lively state. The book trade wants new resources in Italy; the iron trade maintains its former importance*. Lyons may, besides this, be regarded as the only mart for the products of the manufactories from all the departments. The mercantile position of this town is particularly advantageous. Situated in the centre of all the roads leading to Switzerland, Spain, Italy, and Germany; between two rivers, which flow through a great part of the country, and not more than ten leagues from the Loire, it offers to commerce the greatest and most numerous advantages.

The confirmation of this will be found by only glancing at the

* The iron is easily sent, by means of the Soane, from the departments of Jura, Doubs, Cote d'Or, and Deux Marnes, and then farther exported up the Rhone to the whole south of France.

port regulations. Besides the usual principal couriers and diligences which set off from Paris, there are mails and particular diligences which go every other day to all the important extremities of France. There are even some by whom persons may go in a direct line to Leghorn.

Besides these, are a number of messengers, as well as stage-coaches, boats, and other conveyances, in continual motion to and from the neighbouring departments and principal places; they may be had at all times, and at all prices. Barges, with provisions for the market, go three times a week to Chalons and Avignon; and boats daily repair to Grigny, Givors, and Vienne. The manufacturers avail themselves of all these conveyances for the transportation of their goods, which renders this carrying branch very considerable.

Lyons is also distinguished by many public institutions, to which I wish to direct your attention, and therefore commence with the lyceum, and the collections, library, cabinet of natural curiosities, botanic garden, &c. which are united with it. To these may be added a number of public and private schools, including the academy of Monsieur Maintemoux, at St. Just sur Lyon, all of which deserve an honourable mention.

I also observed the "*École d'économie rurale vétérinaire*," for agriculture and farriery, instituted by the famous Bourgelat, and at present occupying the convent formerly known by the title of "*Maison des deux amans*," situated at the north-west end of the town, on the outer side the Saon.

This institution has been able to maintain its former celebrity, and is numerously attended both by natives and foreigners.

Among the proper literary societies I must first mention the "*Athénée*," or, as it will next be called, "*Académie de Lyons*," which reckons among its members a number of considerable names. For example Buonaparte, Fleuriu, Laccpede, Jussieu, Correa de la Serra, Lalande, Gruner; (at Jena) Von Zach, and many others, stand among its honorary members. A second literary society is the "*Société libre d'Agriculture, Histoire Naturelle et Arts Utiles*;" and lastly, the "*Société de Médecine*," from which of late great hopes have been entertained.

For the relief of the suffering poor is found in Lyons the "*Hospice des Malades*," into which natives and strangers are received without distinction, and with which is united an institution for pregnant women, and another for lunatics; but they all stand in need of much improvement. Here is also a "*Hospice des Vieillards et Orphelins*," for the reception of the aged who are above seventy; for orphans, or destitute children, until the age of sixteen; and for pregnant girls who have been se-

duced. The funds of both these hospitals are said to be very considerable; but the internal regulations are, upon the whole, not to be recommended. With the “Hospice des Malades” is united the school for medicine and surgery, which appears to be particularly devoted to the formation of surgeons for the army.

A third hospital is known by the name of “Depôt de Mendicité;” here beggars, lunatic, and other persons are admitted and supplied with either labour or medicine, as their infirmities require. This hospital is not well spoken of: it is supported by the public. The “Bureau de Bienfaisance” appears, however, much better regulated by the prefect. Its income is derived from balls, concerts, theatrics, &c. and it supplies above eight thousand poor with wood, bread, meat, &c. This institution must not be confounded with the “Institution de Bienfaisance,” this being a private undertaking by two physicians; their names are Dalvet and Clere; and they are always gratis at the service of the poor, the pregnant, or the sick.

The “Etablissement de Bienfaisance” is another private institution, which owes its origin to the agricultural society: here the poor in general, and Lyonese returning to their country, may receive assistance: the Rumford soup is also served here. Besides these are some “Maisons de la Charité,” in which the sick of the four quarters are attended by the *sieurs de la misère*. With one of these a school is united, where female children are taught reading, writing, drawing, needle-work, knitting, &c. free of expence.

Finally, I must mention a “Bureau de Vaccine,” undertaken by Doctors Briou and Bellay; to whom mankind are indebted for the introduction of this valuable discovery; and Doctor Blanc’s laudable private institution for lunatics. (Aux cidevant Recollets montée de Fourvières).

With respect to the public convenience or security, my attention has been directed to the “Bureau d’avis et d’Adresse;” two “Bureaux d’Assurance contre les Incendies;” several “Bureaux generaux d’Agence;” “Bureaux des Nourrices;” and one “Petite Poste.”

The public papers are “Affiches, Annonces, et Avis divers de Lyons,” quarto, published by the Bureau d’Avis et d’Adresse—Nouvelles de Paris et de Lyons, octavo; a sort of country paper half filled with advertisements—Journal de Lyons, octavo; a very poor provincial paper—Almanack de Lyons, octavo; an annual paper—An Address Calendar, perhaps the best in France, and with which I think it time to conclude a letter on

a place where I have not been more than eight days; to-morrow I shall rise with the first dawn of day, and set out direct for Marseilles.

LETTER IV.

DEPARTURE FROM LYONS.—MORNING.—VALE OF ST. SIMPHORIEN.—MILDER TEMPERAMENT AND FINER VEGETATION.—VIENNE.—COTE ROTIE.—ST. VALIER.—APPROACH TO THE PROVINCE.—HERMITAGE.—ISERE.—VALENCE.—MONTBLIMAR.—THE ORIGINAL—SOUTHERN AIR AND VEGETATION ARRIVAL OF AVIGNON.

AVIGNON, *November 1803.*

ON one of the finest evenings in autumn, I arrived here, and found nothing but joy and festivity. The weather is as mild and charming as with us at the end of August; the gnats are sporting in large companies round the candle; and as supper will not be ready for an hour, I shall pass that time in finishing my letter.

For the first league after we left Lyons every thing wore the vestiges of winter: the trees were covered with a light snow, ponds with a pellicle of ice, and a thick fog waved over the dreary plain. But scarcely had we descended the elevations of St. Simphorien than we experienced a milder temperature. The fog was dissipated, the sun broke forth from the clouds and uncovered to us a landscape embellished with the bright glow of autumn. The trees yet retained their appearance: the meadows were still adorned with the freshest green, a pure balsamic breeze mingled with the melody of innumerable birds, announced our approach to a southern region. Thus encompassed with fertility we reached the little southern town of Vienne: on one side of us flowed the Rhone, and on the other stood high mountains. The house at which we alighted was but a poor one; the prospect of the terrace, however, unexpectedly fine. A rich and picturesque view, variegated with hill and dale, adorned the opposite shore; the place is called Cote Rotie, where a full southern sun matures the choicest wares; among which the white cendricux, and the red ampurs, are the most esteemed, and constitute the chief support of Vienne. As the antiquities of this place have been so frequently described I pass them over; observing only, that the beautiful obelisk serves for the pillar of the department, and is still decorated on the top with a cap of liberty. Although the country round Vienne is so fine, and the suburbs so pleasant, yet the town

itself may be reckoned among the ugliest in all France. We proceeded through charming quays by the Rhone, and along superb mountains until the evening, and arrived in good time at St. Vallier. The accent was already somewhat provincial, and the wine brought in provincial jugs. The food we found for the first time dressed in oil, and the beds elevated several feet above the floor. The French costume appeared to combat the provincial; and the lovely daughter of the hostess was full of rustic animation. We were served with hermitage at three livres a bottle, which was by no means of a bad quality. We left this flourishing town the next day at noon. The hill where this fine beverage is made lies at the back of Tnin. The surface consists of excavated granite, upon which the sun lies nearly the whole day. Besides this, each vine being placed in an excavation, where the sun's rays are concentrated, it naturally produces a very highly spirited wine. The name is derived from a little chapel which stands on the point of its acclivity.

A league beyond here we were badly ferried over the Isère. We found both banks of the river covered with high beds of gravel, which are brought and left there by the strong streams coming from the mountains when they produce floods. From here to Valence the country was uncommonly bare, until we nearly approached the town, when it became suddenly again very pleasant. The vegetation was as verdant as it usually is in the southern parts of Germany about the beginning of October. To future travellers I should wish to recommend the "Hotel d'Angleterre," in the suburbs.

Having in the afternoon passed a fine bridge over the Drome, we continued our way through a romantic country, and reached Montclémar towards evening. Here I had an opportunity of seeing at the table of the landlord a perfect original, whom I shall describe to you a little more minutely. He was a well-conditioned elderly man; one of those short and stout persons so seldom found in France: he had a circular copper-coloured face; a pair of small blue eyes, quite round; a most hideously long and large nose; and lastly, a mouth full of large teeth, which opened nearly from one ear to the other. His dress consisted of an old fashioned blue coat, with mother of pearl buttons; waistcoat and small clothes of red plush, and immensely large military boots. I have never yet seen so formidable an eater, with perfect convenience he swallowed not less than three pounds of meat and fish, and about double the quantity of bread and cheese. I imagine he must have drank proportionably of wine, as he was incessantly ordering his bottle to be replenished. I conjectured, from his whole appearance, that he

then depredations without coming to a compromise with them, or employing large detachments of cavalry necessarily to pursue. At first they only took the public money, and gave not the least offence to the farmers, unless they opposed them, or were suspicious persons: they were, on the contrary, uncommonly polite, and apologized to the farmers for having given them the trouble of arresting them.

When, however, the diligences carried no more public money, these robbers began to plunder the passengers not only of money, but of whatever valuables they might possess, after which they always returned to each person even lives for the expenses of the day, and carefully observed the route each took. This was certainly a generosity and consideration worthy of notice.

From the number of anecdotes which this period afforded, I shall just relate you the following.

One, having stopped the diligence in which were several gentlemen and one lady, they said to the lady, *Comment, Messieurs?* said she, with a calm and noble presence of mind, “*Des Français enlèvent à une femme.*” “*Sincèrement,*” was the answer. “*Ne me voyons que vous embrasser.*” — They kept their word, and the lady was not robbed.

Another time, when the diligence was robbed, there happened to be a Swede in it, who said with much simplicity to the robbers, when they applied to him — *Je suis étranger, Messieurs! Je voyage seul de Suède en France.* They demanded his pass, and having found it correct, said to him, with much civility, “*Adieu, Monsieur! Vous ne payez rien.*”

On another occasion a merchant from London was travelling in the diligence with three hundred livres of gold about him. When he was stopped, he told the robbers that he was contented to deliver up his money. They said but a quarter of million, and then said, *l'argent n'est pas tout.* “*Très-bien, et puis, dit-il, je ne suis pas riche.*” The other with the chest put on the robbery, and the whole company laughed, and the robbers retired satisfied. One of the characteristic of the nation I must mention here. A Jew had sewed his money under his mantle, but he put his pocket purse apparently full of louis d'or. When the diligence was stopped, he gave his pocket purse to the robbers. The first man is much as would be his voice to him. By all means, was the answer, “*but you will have the goodness to take it in silver.*” By this method, the Jew obtained from the robbers twenty-

four crowns in silver, instead of a purse full of whist markers, at most not worth above ten or twelve livres.

Not less judicious were the conceptions of many other travellers on the same occasion. One, for example, dropped his money in the window frame; another hung it on a hook near the door; one hid his louis d'or in an apple, and another in a loaf, some bound them round the bodies of their dogs, and others concealed them in the heads of their canes.

The robbers and robberies occupied our attention until we had finally no more to say, and retired to rest. Each hastened to pack the principal part of his money in his trunk: thus prepared for the worst we recommenced our journey on the following morning, and passed the most dangerous places without hearing any thing of the robbers.

We soon reached the Drance, on whose banks we perceived thick layers of gravel; among which, upon examination, we discovered many varolites and fragments of granite, porphyry, sienna, &c. It is easily to be conceived that they are brought here from the Alps of Dauphine, and left by the violent floods of the Drance.

The following three leagues to Orgon bore all the marks of provincial sterility; for only in the vicinity of Orgon is the ground better cultivated. We soon, however, descended into the rich valley of Aix, which we left behind us, together with le Puy Albertas, &c. and proceeded to the last hill, from which we passed on in a direct line towards the coast. It is called the Vista, and commands at once a view of the fine gulph and luxurions vale of Marseilles.

Among innumerable country seats, and gardens full of the most vivid vegetation, we flew on to Marseilles. A peculiar mixture of European and Oriental forms, of southern and eastern fruits, of maritime and inland industry, announced to us, even at the very gates, our entrance into a great trading city. We turned to the left down a large street, and discovered, by the glimmer of the setting sun, the haven crowded with vessels. The swallows were fluttering in joyful circles; and every where resounded notes of music and cheerfulness. Every thing was animated and lively; every thing full of southern festivity and elegance.

LITERARY

MAISFIEU —SITUATION AND SURVEY OF THE TOWN —
GEOGRAPHICAL — ELEVATION — OLD AND NEW TOWNS —
—EITHER DIVISION — CLIMATE — COUNTRY —
—LIGHTING — EITHER BUILDINGS — EITHER TRACT —
—ARCHITECTURE — HAVEN — OF ELEVATION — PROS-
PECT AND PLAN OF THE TOWN

HAVING ascended in order for the purpose of viewing the town and surrounding country, I could easily see that Maisfieu is situated in a vale surrounded with mountains, opening on the west side towards the sea into a deep southern mountain slope, and forming the beautiful ridge of the crags, whose back or northern part constitute the *Montagne de Maisfieu*. From this point of view it is perceivable that the town is in the form of a horse-shoe, round which the haven extends; also that the northern side contains the most fertile lands, and is elevated above the rest. Its situation is $3^{\circ} 14' 11''$ lat. $1^{\circ} 17' 11''$ N. lit. and its population, according to a French Count (le Comte), amounts to 90412 inhabitants. Upon descending into the town, it is found to be divided into two parts, the old town (*vieille ville*) and the new town (*les quartiers neufs*); the former extends itself in a sloping direction towards the haven, and the latter, south and east, towards the same point. The streets are less compressed. The former appears to be a perfect labyrinth, but the latter is distinguished for its regularity. Both, however, are well planned, and form three principal streets, out of which an innumerable number of small ones run towards the haven. The chief streets of the old town run from east to west, and are intersected by smaller ones running from north to south; the chief streets of the new town run from north to south, and are intersected streets *de travers*.

The streets of the old town are for the most part narrow, steep, full of holes, badly paved, and crowded with men looking horses. The streets of the new town are for the most part perfectly straight, and adorned with handsome buildings. The former is entirely occupied by the houses of the poor, and the latter by the better classes. The old town is more populous, but the new is preferred by the nobles, and the rich. The old town is much excellent *pour le commerce*, where the *commerce* is *très* *actif* *et* *très* *important*.

“ *heavy d'nsance*” introduced in these places. Only the principal street is excellently laid out in the town.

Here are but few public buildings which deserve mention: I should therefore only put notice the Hôtel de Val, or the Consigne, the church of the *ex-dévant* Franchens, the new Irish hall and the Theatre, they have all been circumstantially described by Fischer. Of the fine abbey of St. Victor, and the beautiful Gothic church known by the name of *le-Accoules*, nothing now remains but the ruins. Both were demolished during the revolution.

There are many public places, but only three of much repute, the Place Castillon, St. Lennoch, and de la Couronne. Within the last four years the principal have been levelled and laid out in plantations, by which the former suburbs now form a part of the town. The manner of building the houses approaches to the oriental, the roofs being mostly flat, they are used for terraces. The towers are still more remarkable, for then large square domes, through whose windows the interior part receives light, and for the perforated chimneys which are so generally introduced on account of the frequent and violent mistral.

The haven is of a cubic form measuring 40 fathoms by 130. It is capable to contain 600 ships, is sheltered from all winds, and is closed with excellent quays. Put from the great quantities of filth which flow into it from the various municipalities, it is much to be feared that, notwithstanding the different machines, it will become more and more insupportable. The haven is guarded by two forts, that of St. Jean and that of St. Nicolas. Whether the newly projected sluice at the back of the old town will succeed, appears, at present, very doubtful. Views of the tower and haven by Fischer published by Bannet. A plan is published in 1789 and 90 by P. de la Couronne which there are of the fortification on various. An author is now preparing and will probably, in six or seven weeks, be completed.

THE HAVEN.

CLIMATE OF NANTES. — A table of the mean temperature from 1796 to 1803. — The mean temperature of the air, the sea, and the soil, in the month of June.

WARMTH and moisture, and the wind, are the principal factors, constitute the character of the climate in this place. The thermometer stands in summer at a temperature, between 21—25 degrees, and is regularly accompanied by a refreshing air-

but on sea wind, which blows from ten in the morning till six in the evening. In winter the cold usually rises only from 23, seldom from 56, and not once in a century to 89 deg. In the first case it continues only a few days, and in the last only a few hours, so that as a rule, a very pleasant temperature may be calculated at 61.2 deg. warmth. The mean height of the barometer is 28 inches 1 line. Its greatest changes, during the whole year, are only 1 inch 5 lines.

The spring, with the exception of the equinoctial season and a few rainy days, is inexpressibly pleasant. The mild and lovely autumn extends far into November, and even sometimes into December. The three weeks subsequent to the winter solstice are rather cold and rainy, but at the end of 3d May, the whole winter is properly ended. No heat in the climate can be really called unpleasant, but the cold in the north-west wind. When at its greatest height, it rises usually from three to six nine, or fourteen days, but seldom exceeds three weeks. This is only general. I shall subjoin a particular drawn from the register of the learned Kials, director of the public observatory*.

In common with the year 1796. In the year were reckoned 12 rainy days and 22 stormy ones, 114 foggy days, and 94 perfectly serene, and 100 perfectly gloomy, 11, cloudy, 227, — three times more than in any other year, even times thunder storm. The quantity of rain, 16 inches 8 lines 9. The state of the barometer, the highest, 6 lines 8, the lowest, 4 inches 5 lines 2. The highest state of the thermometer, 3 deg. 3 above 0, the lowest, 2, the highest state of humidity, 16.0.

In the year 1797, as it follows, 72 rainy, 4 stormy, 102, 9 perfectly serene, 22 foggy, gloomy, and 284 cloudy days. The quantity of rain was twice as much, and thunder four times as much. The quantity of rain was 25 inches 6 lines 9. The highest state of the barometer, 25 inches 7 lines 9, the lowest, 7 inches 5 lines 4. The highest state of the thermometer, 2 deg. 5 above 0, the lowest, 1 deg. below 0. The highest state of the thermometer, 30 deg. 9, the lowest, 15 deg. 0.

In the year 1798, 45 rainy days, 20 stormy, 15 foggy, 107 quite serene, 52 quite gloomy, 200 cloudy, 1 frost, and 2 snowy, were computed. 2 thunder storm, half twice. The quantity of fallen rain, 24 inches 1 line 0. Highest state of the barometer, 28 inches 6 lines 9. Highest state of the thermometer, 25 deg. 4 above 0. Lowest 0.1. Highest humidity, 19 deg. 2, the lowest humidity, 11 deg. 0.

In 1800, 55 rainy days, 20 stormy, 5 foggy, 78 perfectly serene, 25 perfectly gloomy, 200 cloudy, frosty 11, and snowy

* The degrees of the thermometer are by Reaumur. The height of the barometer is in this case to be multiplied.

1; once hail, and nine thunder storms. Fallen rain, 17 inches 1 line 7. Highest state of the barometer, 28 inches 6 lines 0; lowest, 27 inches 3 lines 3. Highest state of the thermometer, 27 deg. 2 above 0; lowest, 6 deg. 5 below 0. Highest state of the hygrometer, 69 deg. 5; lowest, 12 deg. 0.

In 1801, were computed 49 rainy days; 29 stormy; 10 foggy; 96 quite serene; 99 quite gloomy; 107 cloudy; 3 frosty; 5 snowy; 8 thunder storms; no hail. Fallen rain, 12 inches 5 lines 2. Highest state of the barometer, 28 inches 6 lines 3; lowest, 27 inches 3 lines 7. Highest state of the thermometer, 24 deg. 2 above 0; lowest, 1 deg. 3 below 0. Greatest aridity, 70 deg. 0; greatest humidity, 13 deg. 0.

In 1802, were computed 49 rainy days; 22 stormy; 1 foggy; 109 quite serene; 16 quite gloomy; 120 cloudy; 13 frosty; 3 snowy; no hail; 7 thunder storms. Fallen rain, 19 inches 11 lines 7. Highest state of barometer, 28 inches 11 lines 2; lowest, 27 inches 1 line 8. Highest state of the thermometer, 29 deg. 9 above nothing; lowest, 1 deg. 1 below 0. Highest state of hygrometer, 61 deg. 7; lowest, 8 deg. 0.

In 1803, 65 rainy days; 136 stormy; 0 foggy; 107 quite clear; 57 quite gloomy; 180 cloudy; 15 frosty; 3 snowy; no hail; 5 thunder storms. Fallen rain, 25 inches 0 lines 3. Highest state of barometer, 28 inches 5 lines 7; lowest 25 inches 11 lines 2. Highest state of thermometer, 29 deg. above 0; lowest, 4 deg. 6 below 0. Highest state of hygrometer, 69 deg. 7; lowest, 0 deg. 3.

From the commencement of November to the end of March the north-west wind, and the west-north-west, blow the most frequently. In April, these winds give place to the south-east and south-west; which are ruling winds from June to the end of October. The north-west, and the west-north-west, always bring fine clear weather; the south-south-east, and the west-south-west, bring in the winter months always rain. Among the warm winds the south-west, and amongst the cold ones, the north-west, are both equally unpleasant; the one producing an enervating warmth, and the other a cutting and penetrating cold. Saussure has ventured a presumption on the durability of the latter wind, which I cannot forbear communicating.

It is well known that the mistral, or north-west wind, is perceived in all the lower provinces, and in Lower Languedoc, with more or less force, all the seasons of the year, and with every variation of the atmosphere. This is explained by Saussure in the following very probable hypothesis*. He first directs the attention to the situation of the Gulph of Lyons, in a

* Voyages dans les Alpes. Tom III, edn. in 4to pag. 107. suiv.

large hollow, circumscribed by the Alps and the Pyrenees. Every wind between north and west rebounds from these mountains, and plunges into the gulph—thus, when several winds (as is often the case) come in contact with each other, they necessarily produce the whirlwinds particularly appropriate to the mistral.

A second reason Saussure adduces from the general inclination of the coasts inclosing the gulph. They all diverge too much towards the sea, from which the cold winds pour with increased facility towards this lowest and warmest point, and cause a current which increases in power from the circumference, direction, and depth of the gulph. But enough on the origin of the mistral. I shall now proceed to the medical properties of the climate of Marseilles.

The climate of this place appears much conducive to health. Nothing is to be seen but tall fine athletic forms, and a continually increasing population. Notwithstanding the frequent excesses of the people, the middle age is reckoned at thirty, and persons frequently attain sixty or seventy. But whoever visits Marseilles for the restoration of his health, must not forget that the climate is alone beneficial for—Nervous diseases, and on account of its invincible sharpness, always—dangerous for Pectoral ones!

LETTER VIII.

DOMESTIC ECONOMY AT MARSEILLES.—BREAD.—WATER
—OIL.—MILK.—MEAT.—VEGETABLES.—FISH.—FRUIT.
—WINE.—SWEETMEATS.—BLISS.—SPIRITS.—LODGING.
—DRESS.—PARTICULAR ESTIMATES AND RE-
MARKS.—ADVICE TO TRAVELLERS.

MARSEILLES, *December 1805*

IN the present letter I will impart to you some information on the domestic economy of this place, knowing, from experience, how pleasant it will be for the distant reader and future traveller. You must expect nothing cheap, those times have long passed. Marseilles is, on the contrary, a very expensive residence; but I will go into particulars, that you may see in what manner persons live here. The bread is as fine as can be produced by the rich meadows of Langnedoc and the Levant, and the pound cost this winter three sous. The water is but tolerable, in some places bad, as it carries more or less clay with it. The best flowing springs are in the upper parts of the old town, and those in the haven drawn from them, are in the best repute. The best oil

costs thirty sous; the second sort twenty, and the common for burning, from twelve to fifteen — Milk is scarce and dear for those who cannot use goat's milk.

The meat is very good, particularly the mutton and lamb, which is distinguished by a peculiar delicacy and tenderness. The pork too is much praised, the provincial hams and "saucissons" are extolled by every French epicure. A pound of beef costs, at present, ten sous, of mutton twelve, pork sixteen, lamb fourteen, and veal twenty-four.

The most esteemed fish is the chiod, and a sort of perch, the best sort costs from twenty to four and twenty sous a pound, the common from ten to fifteen. Among the maritime fishes, the tunnies are much valued, particularly those from St. Tropez, where the preparation is best understood. The finest sort cost five livres a pound.

Vegetables are plentiful throughout the year, but proportionably expensive, from the great consumption and difficulty of conveyance. A small bundle of carnations costs from twelve to fifteen sous, one head of celery, two, a handful of spruce, seven, the same of parsley, three sous. &c.

Fruits, both exotic and indigenous, are very abundant. Of the indigenous, I mention only the fig, almond, plum, and grape. Of the exotic, those coming from Italy and the Levant. A pound of the best Marseilles figs costs twice as much as of the best unshelled almonds, ten of French plums, twelve, and a pound of the choicest grapes, ten sous.

Oranges and pomegranates are imported from Spain, those from Hyeres and Nizza having a roughness in the flavour. From Italy they receive chestnuts, apples, pears, &c. From the Levant dates and pistachios. When sold at a moderate price, two pomegranates or oranges, cost three or four sous, a pound of Genoese chestnuts from eight to ten sous, half a dozen Genoese apples from three to four, a chest of dates from twenty to thirty, a pound of pistachios from thirty five to forty sous, &c.

The common provincial wines are rather cheap. A bottle, two years old and very palatable, may be had for four or five sous. That of five years old, refined and improved*, costs from nine to twelve sous. Fine provincial wines, such as Cassis, Malgue, &c. are sold at from two to three livres. Other French wines, as Frontignac, Condrieux, Hermitage, Beaune, &c. from two to six livres. Spanish wines, as Lupo, Xeres, Malaga, Alicante, &c. Italian and Sicilian, as Stronsum, Grecco, as Cyprus, may also be had here pure and unadulterated, but not under the high price of from five to ten livres.

Among the liquors I mention only the huile de jasmin, as

* It is only a fine wine improved by the addition of a superior sort of brandy.

being certainly the best. Among the preserves, the oranges deserve the most attention. Mineral water they receive from Lyons. The beer is prepared well, and in large quantities, by German brewers — A bottle of huile de jasmin costs three livres. The same of (artificial) Seltzer water, ten sous, a pot of preserved oranges, six livres, a bottle of beer, twelve sous, &c.

Footings, firing, and apparel, may, with certainty, be reckoned the most expensive articles in Marseilles. A moderate room costs 30 livres per month, a small floor from 6 to 700 yearly. A great coat, of decent cloth, costs four louis d'ors; and of the finest, seven. A hundred weight of oak timber, three livres, the same of fir, thirty five sous. — But it is now time to say a few words for the benefit of travellers or strangers.

Whoever intends to fix any time in Marseilles, and is not offended by the bustle of a hotel, I advise to board here at the Hotel de l'Ambassade, where the expence is from ten to twelve livres day. Those who on the contrary, prefer retirement, would do well to seek the assistance of their banker, who, whatever, can recommend them to board in a private family. Those who merely want a room and board either from home, or provide for themselves, may find numerous accommodations for forty or forty eight livres per month. For this purpose the Rue de Rome and the quai all vis à vis Melhan, are the most desirable situations.

LITERATURE

SOCIETY AT MARSEILLES — THEATRE — BATHS. — CON-
CERTS — CLUBS — CIRCULATING LIBRARIES AND MUSIC.
— PROMENADES IN THE TOWN — THE COURSE — PAR-
TICULARS OF THE FLOWER-MARKET — THE QUAY ST.
JEAN — REPRISINAIION — THE TOURETTE — HISTORI-
CAL REMARKS — THE WHARF OF ST. NICOLAS — PROME-
NADE AT THE BACK OF THE FORT — ROAD TO THE FORT
NOTRE DAME DE LA GARDE — VIEW — ALILYS DE
MEIHAN

MARSEILLE, *Tuesday* 1804.

DO not be concerned, my dear friend, for fears you should want amusement, at Marseilles, believe me you will be well satisfied on this point. To commence then with the usual resources you will find two theatres, the "Grand Theatre" and the "Theatre de la Rue Thurot" — The former may vie with those of Paris, the latter is not much superior to a common one at the Boulevards.

The most celebrated pieces are got up at the Grand Theatre, and are represented alternately with operas and ballads. The performers are good; the singers not bad; the musicians skilful; the scenery fine; the costume (particularly the oriental) correct and splendid; and dancers approach near to those of Paris. It is open every evening, and a stranger would do well to go *aux secondes* for three liv.

The Theatre Thubureau has much variety, little intriguing pieces, farces, and the like, such as are usually seen on the Boulevards theatres. Players, singers, musicians, scenery, and decorations, are all pretty much upon a par. They perform here also every evening; but it is not advisable to go otherwise than *aux premieres* for two livres; for, whoever wishes to study low life and detail, I recommend, in particular, the broad comic farces giving in the provincial pathos.

Public balls, concerts, &c. particularly in winter, are given almost daily. To the disgrace of Marseilles, there are no less than six or eight public and licensed theatres. But I pass it over in silence, as I do the licentiousness of the place, which is already sufficiently known; and turn rather to the lively spirit of the inhabitants; the refined sociability of the higher classes; the hospitality of the German and Swiss houses, where every upright countryman finds the most cordial reception. Prudence teaches me to avoid particulars; but the individuals will ever live in my remembrance.

The "Union," and the "Club sans Pretension," both composed of merchants; the latter mostly of Germans, Swiss, &c. form two very agreeable circles. Reading, conversation, social games, and occasionally a festive entertainment, are the chief objects of the meeting. The Union contains a pretty mercantile library, and the best national newspapers. Both societies have a very pleasant place of assembly, which is well warmed and lighted. To be introduced into either company, nothing more is requisite than an address to one substantial house.

A reading-room for journals and newspapers, united with a small circulating library, may be met with at the honest and industrious Vigier's, directly opposite Evrard's Hotel. Another of the same kind is kept by Michael, Rue St. Feneol. Several circulating libraries are to be found upon the Course, but they contain few good books. The booksellers Chardon, at the Canebiere; Chais, on the quay; St. Jean, and the worthy Vigier, have the most novelties; the latter is to be recommended for the moderation of his prices. Large and valuable works may be had of Mossy.

As proper promenades are no where to be found, I can only speak of what resembles them the most. In the town there is,

First the Course, an avenue, 216 toises in length, bounded on either side by rows of houses; although it has been so much neglected during the revolution, it affords (from its populousness and the number of its shops) at all times a pleasant lounge. At its lower extremity, towards the Rue de Rome, is the flower-market, which must not pass unobserved. The women who attend it are distinguished from the rest of the lower class by a finer dialect, more gentle manners, and superior forms; they sit in two rows with their flowers set on large tables, which being rather cheap even in winter, almost every female appears on a Sunday with a natural bouquet. A large bunch of violets or narcissuses costs two or three sous; one of pinks four; of orange blossoms five or six.

In addition to the flowers growing in Marseilles, many are brought in small vessels from Toulon, Grape, Nizza, and San Remo; together with pinks for planting, rose-bushes, small lemon and orange trees, &c. from which a sort of botanical luxury is collected.

Other promenades are afforded by the quays, which, as was before remarked, enclose the haven like a horse-shoe, and which receive their names from the forts at the extremities: St. Jean on the right hand, and St. Nicolas on the left.

The former presents a scene of the most varied mercantile and maritime industry: while one side is crowded with cellars, booths, and shops one above another; the opposite side is thronged with large and small vessels. Here are rope-makers, and watch-makers, goldsmiths and map-sellers, perfumers and pedlars, fruit-women and fish-women, dealers in parrots and monkeys, hawkers of pictures, &c. &c. indiscriminately jumbled together into one chequered mass. Here the ships arrive from Genoa with apples and chesnuts; from Toulon, Mallorca, and Frejus with oranges and sardels; barks with flowers, onions, and flax; seluccas from Nizza, Leghorn, and Bastia; vessels laden with wood from Hyeres, and Porto Ferrajo; and, finally, the great trading vessels in West India produce to and from the Levant, &c. Not without some difficulty a passage is forced through these busy crowds to ascend the place St. Jean upon the Tonrette, or old rampart, which is a large terrace extending along the gulph from St. Jean's to the old cathedral church. Were it but planted with trees, and less exposed to the full rage of the mistral, it might, from its pure air and enchanting prospects, become one of the pleasantest walks in Marseilles; at present it is little frequented.

The miserable fishing-huts which enclose one side, afford a historical curiosity worthy of remark. Their inhabitants are distinguished by their dress, language, and manners, from all the people of Marseilles and the other provinces, on which ac-

count they have been justly regarded as the descendants of the ancient Phenicians. It is highly probable that they were the first inhabitants of Marseilles; and that this spot was its original scite, but it is supposed that the hills extended much farther into the gulph and the old town, from its extremity down to the ocean.

Descending again from the Tourette, to pass by the Consigne across the haven, you land on the quay of St. Nicolas; which is not without its peculiarities. Although the number of shops and the variety of mercantile and maritime occupations is here much less than on the opposite quay, still the loss is replaced by the greater number of magazines, dock-yards, public-houses full of sailors, corn-ships, colliers, and many other northern scenes by no means uninteresting to the stranger. At the end of the fort of St. Nicolas lies, on the right hand and on the left, the path to the newly planned walk behind it, which being only a bare terrace, smoothed in the rock, deserves no particular attention for any thing but for the fine prospect which it commands. Towards the side, a steep open path leads up to the fort de Notre Dame de la Garde, whose height is computed at eighty-five toises: what from the terrace could be imperfectly seen, namely, the town, the haven, the double chain of mountains, the gulph, surrounding country, islands, and the elevated ocean, here breaks upon the sight like one grand amphitheatre, and may be clearly and distinctly seen. The fort itself is insignificant, not having a single cannon; but as it commands the whole town, every ship entering the gulph is announced there the town.

Les Allées de Meilhan afford the third promenade. This is, properly speaking, the only one where fresh air is united with something of rural tranquillity; on its left side lies the Course. The walks are broad, and the trees kept in good order; the houses have a neat appearance, and do not impede the free circulation of air. Thus much of the walks within Marseilles; we shall next speak of those without the town.

LETTER V.

COUNTRY OF MARSEILLES.—PARTICULAR WALKS.—LA MAGDELAINE.—CARTHUSIAN.—VRAUNE VALE.—BASTIDES, GENERAL AND PARTICULAR, VALUE AND USE.—EXCURSIONS.—MARSEILLES BOYRE, &c.

MARSEILLES, *January 1804.*

“**W**ALKS without the town!” you exclaim with surprise; “why the whole country is said to be nothing but a labyrinth of garden walls.” This assertion is much too positive. You will see

hat here and there a pleasant walk is to be found. Immediately at the close of the Allées de Meilhan lie the promenade de la Magdelaine, and the fine Carthusian, both encompassed with charming scenery. On one side, towards Aubagne, lies a little valley, watered by the Vraune, and enriched with fine meadows and trees of the freshest green. On the other side you have only to pass the first garden walls, and you are encompassed by flowery shrubs and fruitful vineyards. Still it must be allowed, that these walks are to be preferred in the winter; the great want of shade rendering them almost insupportable in the summer: neither can it be denied, that, for the most part, the country is either bare and waste, or covered with “Bastides.”

A common bastide, and nine tenths are so, contains nothing more than a saloon, some small adjoining rooms, and two, yet smaller, on the upper story. A few vegetables, vines, olive, almond, and fig-trees, constitute the requisites for a garden. A varied vegetation, shade, cool springs, and the harmony of birds are dispensable. Bastides, such as are met with in the romantic scenery of Switzerland; bastides truly fitted for rural retirement, with comfortable convenient apartments, gardens filled with flowers, cooling springs, and trees affording shade, are, alas! rarely to be found in Marseilles. The finest, however, are to be seen, some aux Eygalades, others on the way to Toulon, lying along the coast, embosomed in ever-blooming freshness, and possessing every advantage which a southern climate can bestow.

A common one costs from 8 to 10,000 liv. a superior one from 12 to 15,000 liv. and one of the best from 24 to 30,000 liv.: the produce is trifling, and the expence frequently considerable; but as the possession of one forms an appendage of fashionable life, the value is subject to little variation. Many are used only a few days in the week, and others only a few weeks in the year. In this particular, even artisans ape their superiors, and at least hire lodgings at the house of a peasant: in such cases “ma bastide” sounds rather laughable.

Those who are disposed to take an excursion of a few leagues, will find themselves recompensed by numerous interesting objects: the Grotte de Roland, for example, situated at the side of the mountain, known by the name of Marseilles Boyré; the Chateau Borelli Gemenos, St. Pons, Belloubie, Alloutras, Notre Dame des Auges, la St. Baume, &c. a description of which has been given by Papon, although they are much changed during the last twenty years, and have suffered much from the revolution. The mountain, however, deserves particular notice, by reason of its height, which amounts to 217 toises, and its being used in war-time as a beacon; on which account a small guard-house is placed on the summit. In the day a flag, and at night, a

lantern serve as signals. A red flag, with a flaming light, hastily covered, denotes danger; a white flag and steady light, security. The mountain is discernible, from the eastern and western coasts, at the distance of three leagues. It is almost superfluous to add, that the naturalist will find ample scope for observation, and collect numerous shells, fine plants, beautiful dendrites, &c. &c.

LETTER XI.

INDUSTRY AND MERCHANDIZE OF MARSEILLES.—STATE OF MANUFACTURES IN 1788 AND 1803.—STATE OF TRADE IN 1788 AND 1803.—OBSERVATIONS.—EXPORTATIONS AND IMPORTATIONS.—PARTICULARS.—BILL TRADE.—THE CONSULATE.—COMMUNICATIONS.—QUARANTINE REGULATIONS OF MARSEILLES.

MARSEILLES, *January 1804.*

IN speaking of the labouring and mercantile resources of this place, nothing presents itself but melancholy contrasts. What trade! What manufactures prior to the revolution, and what a decrease! What ruin fifteen years subsequent! What Marseilles was, what it might be, if favoured by circumstances, I shall endeavour to shew, and I hope satisfactorily.

Manufactories.—In 1788 Marseilles contained the following manufactories:—soap-boilers, 41; hatters, 47; sugar-refiners, 12; potteries, 10; china manufactories, 5; cotton-printers, 17; silk stocking-weavers, 27; sail-cloth manufactories, 15; tapestry manufactories, 9; tanners, 26; Spanish-leather manufactories, 5; liqueur distilleries, 25; tobacco manufactories, 1; starch manufactories, 13; paper mills, 3; glass manufactories, 6; brandy distilleries, 4; wax-light manufactories, 7; tallow-chandlers, 9; vitriol manufactories, 2; coral manufactories, 1; brimstone manufactories, 5; Smyrna-cotton dyers, 4; woollen cap manufactories, 3; dyers, 5; glove manufactories, 3; thread, silk, and worsted manufactories, 4; gold and silver stuff manufactories, 2; Indian and cotton manufactories, 13.

In 1803 there existed in a state of employ, soap-boilers, 27; hatters, 30; sugar-refiners, 5; potteries, 6; cotton-printers, 5; silk stocking manufactories, 12; tapestry manufactories 5; tanners, 17; liqueur distilleries, 20; starch manufactories, 7; paper mill, 1; glass manufactories, 4; wax-light manufactories, 4; brandy distillers, 5; tallow-chandlers, 6; vitriol and brimstone manufactories, 4; Smyrna-cotton dyers, 7; woollen cap manufactories, 9; wine manufactories, 10; cotton manufactories, 8; tobacco manufactory, 1.

Upon comparing the two estimates you will perceive, that the manufactories for china, gloves, Spanish leather, thread, silk, and gold and silver stuffs, are entirely sunk ; that the others have suffered more or less ; and that only the manufactories for wine, dying Smyrna cotton, and making wollen caps, have increased : the two latter from the revolutionary fashion of wearing red caps ; and the former, because the well managed provincial* wines are now much sent to the north, under the title of Vins de Bourdeaux.

Trade.—To compare each individual branch in the forementioned years would be scarcely possible ; we shall, therefore, only make a few remarks in the aggregate. The Levant trade, once so important, is now reduced to one-third of its former amount ; that to the West Indies, is almost as good as lost ; the Italian and Spanish, unimportant ; and the Northern, scarcely worth mentioning. In 1788, five thousand ships entered the haven, and in 1803, fifteen hundred. The conclusion is easily drawn. The war, the revolution, and above all, the heavy taxation, have combined to cause it. A word from Buonaparte and Marseilles would again become the first trading town in France. What may be done here will be seen by the following :—Marseilles can export to the Levant, shawls, dying-wood, sugar, coffee, indigo, cochineal, spices, iron, tin, fruits, liqueurs, tartar, cinnabar, woollen and cotton caps, silks, gold and silver laces, gilt work, jewellery, hard-ware, grocery, stuffs, piasters, rix-dollars, and verdigrease.

From the Levant it can import wool, cotton, silk, gums, madder, gall-nuts, opium, camel's and goat's hair raw and spun, tallow, copper, scammony, coffee, soda, hides, frankincense, saffron, myrrh, rice, ammoniac, tamarinds, senna, natrum, skins, coarse cottons, wheat, barley, shell-fruits, ostrich feathers, and wax.

To the West Indies, &c. it can export oil, wine, soap, almonds, candles, brandy, hats, shoes, hair-powder, fruits, cheese, earthen-ware, bricks, hams, nails, hoops, millinery, silk, thread, and cotton stockings, parasols, and other small articles.

In return for which it imports colonial produce, as sugar, coffee, indigo, cocoa, cochineal, &c. nearly in as large quantities as Bourdeaux itself.

Its exports to Italy, Naples, and the Sicilies, are, sugar, coffee, treacle, shawls, stuffs, grocery, hats, and other articles of lux-

* In the provincial dialect called Chaix. The wines are here clarified and otherwise fitted for exportation. In most manufactories the Swedish and Rhine vats are fixed up.

ury; to Sardinia, colonial produce, stock-fish, wine, hides, shawls, fishing-nets, and soap; to Genoa, coffee, sugar, cocoa, annatto, treacle, wines, liqueurs, hard-ware, and hides; to Tuscany, sugar, coffee, indigo, and all sorts of West India products; to Rome and Venice, sugar, coffee, stuffs, spices, and shawls.

It imports from Italy, Naples, and the Sicilies, oil, wheat, shell-fruits, silk, hemp, wool, liquorice-roots, manna, Spanish flies, schumac, tartar, almonds, brimstone, starch, figs, and raisins; from Sardinia, oil, wheat, chesnuts, pickled tunny-fish, lemons, oranges, and other fruits; from Genoa, coal, oil, quills, apples, chesnuts, and other fruits; from Tuscany, wheat and shell-fruits; from Rome and Venice, corn, rye, wool, hemp, and allum.

It exports to Spain, corn, rye, barley, maize, stock-fish, shawls, caps, stuffs, sugar and rice; in return for which it imports oil, indigo, soda, cochineal, saffron, esparto, pilchers, southern fruits, piasters, and wine.

To the North it exports the produce of the Levant, and articles of its own manufacturing; for which it receives northern produce; particularly flax, hemp, wheat, wood for ship-building, tar, tallow, iron, and sail-cloth; to Switzerland, wares from the Levant and West Indies; for which it imports but little, the same articles being sent to the neighbouring and inner provinces of France, and oil, grain, shell-fruits, &c. imported in return.

It is easy to conceive that so extensive a trade must give rise to vast bill transactions; numerous consulates and widely diffused connections must require very important regulations. To commence with bills.—Marseilles maintains a direct course with Amsterdam, London, Hamburgh, Vienna, Paris, Lyons, Toulouse, Bourdeaux, Montpellier, Madrid, Cadiz, Barcelona, Leghorn, Genoa, Constantinople, and Smyrna. It receives consuls from Spain, Genoa, Ragusa, Etruria, Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Prussia, Holland, Austria, Swisserland, and the United States of North America. It has all sorts of communications by land and water; those relating to quarantine and the post are, indisputably, the best in all Europe, and consequently deserve a more minute description.

The post carrying letters to Paris, Grenoble, Chambery, Turin, Triest, Milan, Swisserland, Germany, Holland, England, and the northern kingdoms, goes every day. Couriers go every other day with letters to Nismes, Montpellier, Toulouse, Perpignan, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Barcelona, and Madrid.

Expresses go every week with letters to every part of Italy; by which letters may be also conveyed to Sicily, Sardinia, and

Corsica; others go twice every month to the Levant and Archipelago.

Diligences arrive here every other day from the chief towns of the former provinces; from the other southern departments; and from Paris, every three days. Besides these, are messengers, stage-coaches, cabriolets, and bonts, in continual motion to and from the chief towns. Not less considerable is the number of lighters and stage-waggons, which convey goods to Nismes, Lyons, Grenoble, Strasburgh, Basle, Paris, and Besançon. With regard to the shipping system, you need only turn your attention to the number of coasters from Barcelona to Leghorn, and the packet-boats from Corsica.

I have yet to speak of the fourth important promoter of the commerce of Marseilles; but as this subject requires to be treated distinctly, I have ventured to give you my thoughts in the appendix, and hope they will merit your approbation.

LETTER XII.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF MARSEILLES.—LITERATURE.—THE LYCEUM, ITS BOTANICAL GARDEN AND LIBRARY.—INFERIOR SCHOOLS, &c.—OBSERVATORY.—THULIS—MEDICINAL SOCIETY.—ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES.—LITERARY MEN AND ARTISTS.—STAMATY'S CORK PRODUCTIONS.

MARSEILLES, *Jan.* 1804.

TO speak of the public institutions of Marseilles with more precision, we shall divide them into literary and philanthropic; commencing with the particular institutions, ~~societies, &c.~~ of the former.

The lyceum may certainly claim the first rank; but the botanical garden belonging to it can only be interesting on account of the estimable Rudibert; and the library, only from the learned and meritorious Doctor Achard's being at this time occupied with its arrangement. It is with regret that I am obliged to add, that these institutions are not the most splendid in Marseilles, and that I cannot but be astonished at the sacrifices made to them by many eminent men.

You naturally expect no minute description of the inferior boarding-schools (among which are seven for females), nor of the private ones, where only writing, accounts, and the languages necessary for commerce, are taught. The navigation school is under the direction of the meritorious Dühamel; the observatory, rendered memorable to me by the politeness and

intelligence of Thulis, is deserving of the following particulars, for whose authenticity I make myself responsible.

The "Observatoire National de la Marine" was built during the years from 1699 to 1702, and repaired and improved in the years 1794—1795. It was in the hands of the Jesuits until 1764, when it fell to the care of the Reverend Sitvabelle. In 1800, the ingenious, worthy, and active Thulis became director, which situation he still holds.

The whole structure, bearing the name of "Observatoire de la Marine," lies on a hill, called Bütte des Moulins, which may be considered as the highest point of the town. The building consists of three stories; in the first of which the concierge resides; in the second, the director; and the third is the proper observatory. This consists of a landing-place, a large square room, with two smaller ones on each side. Besides these, are three round towers; one on the north façade, and two on the south; all having portable domes. The roof of the observatory itself is flat, and forms a fine terrace. In the center is a weather-cock, whose plate and hand are inserted in the ceiling of the largest room. The instruments are as follows:

1. A fine gregorian telescope, by Short, with the date 1756. foc. 19 decimeter. It rests upon a parallactic machine, by Acajou, and magnifies from 300 to 1200 times. Both the glasses have been much occidated during twenty years.

2. Another telescope, by Short, foc. 65 centimeter. It magnifies from 90 to 300 times, and is supplied with two micro-meters.

3. An achromatic telescope, by Dolland, foc. 11 decimeter, opening ~~from~~ 36 millim. It rests upon a parallactic machine, by Acajou, can be fitted for a tribus terrestres, and is well supplied with every necessary apparatus.

4. An acromatic meridian telescope, foc. 97 centim. axis 31 centim. It is made by Lennel, and has an excellent niveau.

5. A portable quadrant of 97 centim. radius, by Le Noir.

6. A fixed quadrant of 1 met. 5 radius. It rests on a wall of freestone, but is so badly regulated as to be wholly useless.

7. An excellent astronomical clock, and several other smaller astronomical instruments, by Louis Berthoud.

8. The collection of meteorological instruments, formerly belonging to the Meteorological Society at Mannheim, and sent here in 1781.

The observatory possesses, exclusive of the private library of Thulis, only the following works:

A perfect collection of the *Connaissance des Temps*, &c. from 1760; a perfect collection of *Astronomical Ephemerides*; Lalande's *Astronomie*, the edition 1771, 1792; *Tables of*

Logarithms, by Gardine. The eighth volume of Observations, published by the Meteorological Society of the Palatinate of Mannheim.

Such is the present state of the observatory of Marseilles : a judge will easily perceive that it is far from splendid ; still the zeal and skill of Thulis and Jean Louis Ponz, deserve the highest praise, and give an assurance of what it might become under more favourable circumstances. Monsieur Thulis's apartment deserves notice, as it commands a charming view of the gulph and town ; besides which, he has built himself a study, which leads to a beautiful terrace and garden : here he receives his literary visits.

In this room, and upon this terrace, we were almost daily entertained by one of the noblest of German princesses ! by one of the greatest astronomers of Europe ! Lovely, beautiful mornings ! you will be ever memorable to me. In the midst of winter we are here refreshed by a soft southern breeze : the sky and ocean smile ; the larks warble, the doves coo, pinks and narcissuses, almon and orange trees, all are clothed with the luxuriance of spring : even the ground of the terrace is diversified with knots of mignonette and *Antirrhinum cymbalaria*.—Often would Thulis exclaim, “ Were but Seeberg transplanted to this climate, it would not only be the *first*, but the finest observatory in Europe ! ” I now proceed to the learned societies, with which I shall close my account of the literary institutions of Marseilles.

Among these we find, first, the Medical Society, which is chiefly occupied in examining local diseases, and thereby capable of affording much real benefit. Secondly, the Academy of the Fine Arts and Sciences, which, notwithstanding the loss ~~of its chief~~ friends, maintains an honourable existence, and may be considered as one of the most respectable societies in France. Willingly would I be louder in its praise had I not in this instance received the honour of becoming a member : to avoid being thought partial, I dare say little more than that Achard, Thulis, Azuni, H. H. Girard, Sinery, Delyle-St.-Martin, Brac, Roustau, Barthet, Besson, &c. are valuable men, and deserve your greatest respect.

Monsieur Girard, secretary-general of the departments, is a pleasing poet, as well as an able statesman. He is now employed on a statistical view of the departments, which (judging from what I have seen) will have many advantages. Monsieur Sinery, ci-devant marquis and general of a regiment of dragoons, has distinguished himself by many interesting works, among which his *Agriculteur du Midi* does him great credit. Notwithstanding his advanced age, he labours with wonderful facility ; and is now writing a work on agriculture in the district of Marseilles, which

will contain the result of twenty years' experience and observation.

Monsieur Delyle-St.-Martin, formerly a marine officer, has chosen mechanics for his favourite pursuit, and has invented several machines of general utility. Among them is a very simple sowing machine, some ventilators, on a new construction, &c. which deserve a place in the memoirs of the academy.—Monsieur Brac, who studied for many years at Gottingen, and still venerates the memory of the great Heyne, may be classed among the most eloquent members of the academy. Besides this, he is a great musical amateur, and performs with singular skill upon the harmonica.—Monsieur Roustan, a private gentleman, devotes his property and leisure to sciences. He has taken great journeys to the Levant, with the description of which he is now occupied. He is a worthy and amiable man, from whom I have received many acts of kindness.—Monsieur Barthet is also a great artificer, and a very cultivated man; I saw an excellent telescope and some astronomical watches of his making.—And Monsieur Besson, apothecary, is a skilful chemist, who has simplified many Parisian inventions, the best and purest drugs are to be had of him.

I must yet mention a few more members of the academy, whose merits are universally acknowledged, though I have not the honour of being personally acquainted with them: these are, Vidal, Joyeuse, Odossaint, Blanpain, Duhamel, Gorse, Desfougeres, Aulagnier, Pascal, Borelly, Andibert, &c.

The performances of Stamaty in cork deserve the attention of every admirer of the arts, on account of their fineness, lightness, and beautiful form.

LETTER XIII.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF MARSEILLES.—PHILANTHROPIC INSTITUTION PRIOR AND POSTERIOR TO THE REVOLUTION.—OBSERVATIONS.—GENEROUSITY OF MADAME THULIS.—LOMBARD BANK.—COMITE DE VACCINE.—REGULATIONS OF THE POLICE FOR THE PUBLIC CONVENIENCE.—PUBLIC PAPERS.—PRINTING-OFFICES.

IT is necessary to premise my account of the Philanthropic Institution by remarking, that the consequences of the revolution are still, in this particular, severely felt.—Formerly there existed twelve public, and many private hospitals; one for poor travellers; one for aged women; one foundling-house; one orphan-house; one lying-inn hospital for poor unmarried women; a hospital for poor servants; one for the widows of sailors; and, in every

parish, one poor-house.—Since these institutions have been plundered of their funds, we find only the following :

The great hospital, which serves at the same time as a receptacle for foundlings.—The “Hospice de la Vieillesse” and “l’Adolescence,” a work and orphan-house.—The “Hospice des Insensés,” a mad-house, which receives also other sick.—A “Bureau de Bienfaisance,” for the relief of poor in their own houses, which is on that account united with a medicinal and chirurgical society.—A Société de Bienfaisance, formed by the exertions of Messrs. Thulis and Roustan, to whom Marseilles is indebted for the introduction of the Rumford soup.

I cannot forbear mentioning a lady, whose zeal more than supplies the place of one institution. I mean the ever to be venerated Madame Thulis, wife of the director of the observatory. Like an angel of mercy, and with the philanthropic ardour of a Howard, she receives all sick persons in want of assistance ; all forlorn prisoners, and all neglected poor. No exertion is above her strength, if it do but alleviate human misery. She has but one passion—the love of doing good. She is known and almost deified by all Marseilles. Words can but weakly express the homage I feel for the virtues of this estimable woman !

While speaking of philanthropic institutions, it may not be improper to mention the Lombard-bank, which has existed since 1695 ; and the “Comité de Vaccine,” instituted by Doctor Aulagnier, where children are inoculated gratis with the cow-pox.

Among the police regulations for the public benefit, I have observed the following :—Bureau d’Indication ; Bureau de Confiance ; Entrepot general de la Glace ; several excellent bathing-houses, one in particular kept by Madame Coste, ~~and one~~ by Cit. Roubelin. Lastly, the excellent arrangements of the fiacres, which are to be met with in the Canaliere from seven in the morning till midnight.—In a word, the police of Marseilles is admirable.

The public papers consist of a weekly “Nouvelliste Marseillais ;” an annual “Almanac de Marseilles ;” a journal containing miscellaneous intelligence, called “Correspondence Littéraire, Scientifique, et Technographique du Dep. des Bouches du Rhone,” arranged by Achard. I, of course, include the usual price-currents, ship-lists, &c.—I counted here sixteen printing-offices, some of which had several presses.

LETTER XIV.

PROVINCIAL DIALECT.—GENERAL REMARKS.—PROVERBS.
—CHARACTERISTIC SKETCHES.—LUDICROUSNESS OF
THE PROVINCIAL FRENCH ACCENTUATION.—PROVIN-
CIAL NAMES.—DICTIONARY.—POEMS.

MARSEILLES, *January 1804.*

YOUR wish to have some remarks upon the provincial language might give me an excellent opportunity of shewing the depth of my learning. But do not fear a dissertation, I reserve it for another time, and shall for the present content myself with saying, that the provincial language has been formed from the languages of the different nations to whom Marseilles has belonged. Consequently it is a composition of Grecian, Roman, German, Arabian, Spanish, Italian, and modern French words. It has, during two hundred years, lost that original purity established by the Troubadours, which has only been in some measure preserved in the mountains.

As a proof that it is particularly since the revolution, and even amongst the lowest classes, rapidly giving way to the French, and that the pronunciation is a mixture of the tones used in the abovementioned languages, I shall now give you a few of the most striking proverbs, upon which many philosophical observations might be made.

For example, they say of a rough austere man, “Es un Arabe;” he is an Arab. Of a man of gallantry, “L’amourraoharie d’uno gato corriffado;” he would be enamoured of a cat if it had but a cap on. Speaking of a paltry inefficacious measure, they say, “Es uno garbounado entre doueis violos;” it is a carbonade between the flame of two lamps. Of a person violently actuated by anger, “A coulero tuari un pan per un fourmier;” he would, in his fury, kill the bread instead of the baker. The qualities of the ass, the countryman’s faithful companion, afford a numerous train of similes and proverbs. I shall introduce one, because it will remind many readers of their own country: “Se l’a uno bueno ribo, es par un marrit ay;” the laziest ass gets the best morsel.

Of an intolerably stupid person they say, “Es espes, coumo uno murailho mestrer;” he is as thick as a foundation-wall. A lover calls his mistress “Madelicado;” my pet; or, “Ma ber-

giero," my shepherdess. You will perceive that in this language the feminine gender always terminates in o.

Of a man who derives great profit from any trifling thing and with little trouble, they say, "L'es sach une madono," he has converted it into a milch-cow. Numerous and characteristic are the proverbs concerning the female sex: thus it is said, "Après tres jours, l'on s'ennuegeo de fremos d'hostes, et de pluego." In three days one becomes weary of women, company, and rain, &c. &c.

Another proverb runs thus: "D'ausfeono, de chins, d'armo et d'amours, per un plesir mille doulours." Birds, dogs, arms, and women, bring a thousand pains for every pleasure.

Or, "Amours de courtisan ben de vielan, et fé de femelan nonn duron pas passat un an." The love of a courtier, the inheritance of a miser, and the fidelity of woman, evaporate in a year.

Or, "La fremo et la castagno de fonero bello dentro es la magagno." Women and chesnuts are fair without and foul within.

Or, "Douis bonens jours à l'homé sur terro, quand prend monilbe et quand l'enterro." A married man has two good days; that on which he marries, and that on which he buries his wife.

Or, "Ombro d'homé, vaut cen fremo." The shadow of one man is of more worth than a hundred women.

Or, "Fremos et telo, leis foon pas veiné a la candelo." Women and linen must not be viewed in the daylight. Another remarkable expression is the famous "Ti cali un basséour." I will give you a box on the ear. It is, however, ~~not~~ ^{very} remarkable that the blow always precedes the threat.

Other characteristic proverbs are the following: "Quu a ben dinat, cres leis autres sadouls." Those who have eaten heartily, think others must be satisfied. "Jour passat, jour gagnat." A day passed is a day gained. "Lauso la mar, ten ti en terro." Praise the sea and stay on the land.

Nothing can be more comical than to hear French pronounced with the provincial accent; in which case, "plus haut" is changed into bissan; "verser," into vesser; "frotter," into fretter; "pen," into bau, &c. &c.

Still more laughable is it when whole words and proverbs are intermingled with pure French: there you hear "j'ai vu une fess," instead "j'ai vu une fois;" or, "j'ai acheté une trousse cu," instead of "acheté un porte-épée." Trou, is substituted for trop, and vid for vie. The best of all was, "Madame l'a fait sans metraire," which signifies only, "Madame l'a fait de bonne

grace;" the last being expressed by the provincial sense "man traire."

I conclude by recommending Achard's dictionary, and the poems of Gros, to your particular attention. The latter author has very happily imitated the old Troubadours.

LETTER XV.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE PEOPLE.—GENERAL REMARKS.—LOWER CLASSES.—THE MEN.—FISHERMEN.—PORTERS.—COUNTRY PEOPLE.—SKETCHES.—SUBDIVISIONS.—ANECDOTES.—WOMEN.—SKETCHES AND ANECDOTES.—HIGHER CLASSES.—OBSERVATIONS.

MARSEILLES, *January 1804.*

YOU wish to be made acquainted with the provincial character. I hasten to fulfil your request, and lay before you the result of my observations.

The character of these people appears to have three ruling imperfections, though mixed with many good qualities, roughness, violence, and inconstancy. But this is in some measure counterpoised by their freedom from duplicity and cunning. They are passionate, violent, and tenacious; but show, at the same time, much good-nature, and often even generosity. They catch at every thing from the impulse of the moment; and their friendship and love, their zeal and activity, their courage and bravery, are all equally transient.

The attentive observer discovers every where, both morally and physically, a peculiar mixture of the Grecian and Oriental, as well as of the French and Italian. Their persons and manners, language and habits, vices and virtues, all remind you of the historical vicissitudes, or mercantile connections of this province.

The men of the lower classes are in general distinguished by a coarse and low stature, bristly hair, strong and passionate features, and, above all, by the wild blaze of their eyes. But the fishermen, porters, and country people, possess some peculiarities which must be spoken of distinctly.

The fishermen form a distinct and separate class, in which all the energy of the ancient character, all the simplicity of the ancient language, and all the originality of ancient manners, are preserved and concentrated. Their songs, their dress, their mode of living, every thing informs us that they are the undegenerate descendants of the Phœnicians; but to describe their delicate features—their comely forms—that is past my power.

These provincial fishermen have, for whatever concerns the

fishery, a proper court of judicature in Marseilles, known by the name of "Jurisdiction des Prud'hommes Pêcheurs," and has existed since the tenth century; but in its present form only since 1431. It consists of four seniors, called "Prud'hommes," who are changed every year, and possess, during their administration, unlimited powers.

The court is usually held on Sunday afternoon; the complaints are made verbally, and the cause is decided either by the opinion of the judge, or a majority of voices. "La ley vous coundano;" the law condemns you, excludes all appeal, and finishes the affair. The "Prud'hommes" are dressed in black, and receive a fee of two sols from each party. Besides this, these fishermen have archives full of important records concerning their trade-laws, &c. which have been preserved inviolate even during the revolution.

Their gymnastic exercises deserve no less attention. These consist of mast-running and single combat, called Bigno and la Targuo. For the first, a mast is rubbed with grease, and the skill is displayed in running from one end of it to the other bare-foot. The second is conducted as follows:—From twelve to sixteen light boats are provided in the front, with boards four foot long and ten inches broad. Here the combatants take their places, armed with shields and lances, the boats being rowed each by six strong men. They then divide to a proper distance, and, upon a given signal, suddenly row towards each other. Whoever plunges his opponent the most frequently into the water bears away the prize.

I shall now proceed to the porters, who are distinguished by the deep redness of their faces; the prominence of their eyes; the compression of their necks; and the breadth of their shoulders. Beware of him when he is loaded, for then he is blind and deaf, and would knock you down ten times without being himself once aware of it.

These men form another society. They have their apprenticeships, prize-pieces, seniors, brokers, money-gatherers, &c. United into one common body, each must be answerable for the other. From their very moderate way of living, they possess an extraordinary degree of corporeal strength. "Four hundred weight," say they, "is a trifle; six constitute a proper load;" but from eight to nine commands uncommon respect. The famous Marquetos at Toulon brought it to ten, and his fame is commemorated by a colossal figure under the balcony of the senate-house.

The peasantry form the third interesting class, under which are understood the inhabitants of the higher and lower mountains, and those of the flat country. The former are remarkable for their open, bold, and free dispositions; their honesty, industry, and good nature, are highly praised through the whole province: al-

though they do not regularly emigrate, yet great numbers go to the large towns in the southern provinces, and are eagerly hired as waiters, cooks, and other menial servants. The "Gavouets de Barcelonnette" are famous for their mercantile talents.

The inhabitants of the lower mountains appear to be much worse, which may be attributed to their regular excursions into the southern provinces. Here, with their wives and children, they seek support through the winter. The men hire themselves as carters, helpers, labourers, manufacturers, &c; the women wash and sell fish; and the boys clean shoes, sell chesnuts, or lead about marmots with organs. The girls either go out to mend old cloaths, or commence a little trade with figs and cheese; in short, each member of a family must have some occupation for his support, and from which he can save something for the summer. The love of gain seems to be the ruling passion of these mountaineers.

The peasants of the level country are almost universally decried as malicious, but I believe unjustly; and that their greatest faults are, roughness and impetuosity. One of these peasants will shoot a handful of small shot at you for taking a single fig from his tree; but for a friendly word he will give you a hat-full. The reapers form a still more interesting class of these country people.

The province, considered according to its ancient boundaries, presents three large divisions, rendered by the climate very different from each other. They are the lower, middle, and upper parts, where the harvest naturally falls in three different months. Thus in Naponle, the most southern point, they commence reaping at the ~~end of~~ May; in Aix, at the end of June; and at Barcelonnette, at the end of August. Hence it is easy to conceive that reapers travel for employment through the whole country.

Accompanied by their wives and children, they proceed in caravans of from eighty to a hundred, from place to place, and always towards the north. Each caravan has its superior and subordinate reapers, and its common stock, which is never divided until the labour is finished. All their necessities are carried with them by asses; they travel only during the night, and pass the whole harvest time in open air. Their manners are patriarchal, constituting but one family; and forming close connections of pleasure without the sanction of either law or gospel.

The women of the lower class are a truly Amazonian race. They have little beauty, but much corporeal strength. It is impossible to conceive of any beings more rough, hard, or violent; but their rectitude demands the highest encomium. The wives of the fishermen, porters, &c. have their peculiarities,

from their different modes of life ; but they all agree in their endeavours to vie with the men in hard labour, and in keeping them in perfect subjection. Whoever wishes to study female government, I advise to betake himself to Sourribes ; where he will find a complete *female republic*, and the men only regarded as *slaves*.

The unmarried women of this class have, notwithstanding the many freedoms they use, much self-government. A young man must first be their acquaintance, their friend, their betrothed, before they will permit him the slightest indulgence. Thus they secure their future power ; and they are careful never to let their tenderness influence their conduct. The least contradiction, the slightest neglect, procures his instantaneous dismissal.

When a lover is become insupportable to his mistress, she uses no verbal declaration to make her will known ; but when he next comes, places a log of wood before the fire-place : nothing more is requisite to inform him he must never appear there again.

But I hasten to conclude this subject by a few remarks on the higher classes. The physical and moral organization of the men is tolerably French ; yet the noisy provincial frankness is evident on all occasions. The women are lovely, and almost irresistibly alluring ; but the greatest egotists in the world. They change their lovers as they would their dresses ; they love but for a moment. Dilettanti consider it as a matter of course, and would find Marseilles a paradise full of luxurious houris.

LETTER XVI.

PARTICULAR CUSTOMS AND DIVERSIONS OF THE PROVINCE.
—CELEBRATION OF CHRISTMAS.—OTHER ANNUAL FESTIVALS.—PROVINCIAL DANCES.—THE FARANDOULO.—THE MORRIS DANCE.—THE EQUESTRIAN DANCE.—PROVINCIAL GAMES, AND ATHLETIC EXERCISES.

MARSEILLES, Jan. 1804.

IN no form are the character and disposition of a people so visible as in that of pleasure ; no time can be more interesting to the observer than the moment when a people abandon themselves to their feelings without guile or restraint. Compare the following particulars with my former traits of character ; I leave the conclusion to yourself.

To commence then with the social festival of Christmas. When this time draws nigh, every family, in easy circumstances,

sends for a cask of wine, and lays in a stock of southern fruits ; which, as they arrive, may be seen on the quay in large quantities. In the flower-market, orange branches, with fruit or blossoms, in elegant tubs ; rose-trees, in beautiful pots, &c. are set out for sale ; as also all kinds of toys for the children, and laurel-trees, hung with various kinds of southern fruits. Among the toys monks are again to be seen.

The Christmas evening is devoted to universal joy and festivity. Every booth, cellar, coffee-house, &c. is illuminated, and the table of the poor chesnut-roaster has an additional lamp. The theatres give grand ballets : the gaming-houses balls and soupers ; and the streets are crowded through the whole night with people and bands of music. That which I most admired, and no provincial person ever forgets, even when at the greatest distance from his country, is a sort of sacred entertainment, at which the whole family is present. The relations who have been absent from each other perhaps during the whole year, are to meet on this evening ; those who have been the greatest enemies pardon each other at Christmas ; marriages are fixed ; married pairs who have been separated, are at this time again united ; the shyest lover becomes eloquent, and the most coy fair one becomes kind—every heart dilates with good-will, love, and tenderness, on Christmas evening !

It is well known, that at a true provincial entertainment, “ Noya” (cake made of honey and almonds), the “ Kalignau,” (a fire of fir-wood dipt in oil and wine), the Turkey-cock, the Muscadel, and the Noes, (appropriate songs), are things absolutely indispensable.

In the country, (where the national character is in all games the most easily to be discovered), the old provincial customs are preserved in still greater purity. Here are prize-races, combats, songs, cock-fighting, climbing, &c. at which, naturally, the flowing bowl is never wanting. One particularly pretty custom I must not forget to mention, which was much in use in the former lower provinces, particularly in the vicinity of Frejus and Antibes.

About four weeks previous to Christmas, the youths of the village serenade all the young women usually on the Saturday evening, in return for which honour each is obliged to present to the oldest of the youths, called Aba, a cake at Christmas, marked with her name. As no one ever neglects to fulfil the obligation, the second day of Christmas brings a splendid collection of the whole village, and the cakes are sold by auction in the following manner :

The Aba having mounted a small stage, on which the cakes are placed in baskets, elegantly decorated, he commences, “ A fine,

light, sweet, delicious, charming plum-cake, number one, Maria Coutelon." The orator then taking the cake in his hand, proceeds to expatiate on the beauty, notability, and other perfections of the maker. The bidding then commences, and the cake is finally consigned to the richest or most persevering among the bidders. In the same manner another number follows another, until all the cakes are sold; and the money thus produced is applied to a dancing fund.

Several other feasts follow that of Christmas, some of which I dare not pass over in silence. One of these is the feast of the Epiphany, called "*Fête de la belle Étoile*;" when a waggon, illuminated and drawn by six mules, is led about amidst shouts of exultation. Another on that of Antonius, when the reapers, on the 17th of January, go through the streets with sickles and wheat-sheaves, prophesying to every one, for a gratuity, a good harvest.

On the 1st of May the Carri, a sort of mock king, is driven about in a carriage, adorned with flowers, accompanied with drums and trumpets, and followed by a numerous cavalcade. On Whit-Monday, the Ramada is celebrated by the mowing a public meadow by stations, and accompanied by a variety of sports. On the feast of Corpus Christi a similar procession takes place to that in Aix; but in Marseilles it is less grotesque, and is described by Papon and Beringer.

Another is the feast of St. John; then all persons are mounted on horses or asses, and parade about with *pegons*, or burning fir branches in their hands accompanied with continual firing, very appropriately called "*Fare la Bravado*." The harvest-home; at which they carry columns of wheat-ears, of from eight to nine feet high, about in procession, and then dance round them in rings. The wake, when all is decorated with flowers, ribands, and flags of various colours. The vintage feast, at which an antiquated figure is carried about, sitting in a half cask, covered with vine-leaves and grapes: and many others might be mentioned; but I confine myself to the provincial dancing feasts, and a few more of a similar nature. First, that which is peculiarly provincial, and is, in reality, nothing more than a sort of volero, or representation of licentious attitudes; but appears by no means so lively as the Spanish dance, being, at times, even ungraceful. The dancers appear chiefly to vie with each other in shewing the pliability of their feet, knees, and hips, and in this they truly excite admiration.

Secondly, the Farandoulo, which is evidently of Grecian origin. The dancers are united by the hands, and dance either in circles or long rows, passing under each other's arms in proper measure, without breaking the rows. The men and women

are often separated, and their union in the dance gives rise to many gallantries.

A third national dance is the Moreske, or morris dance ; of which there are properly three sorts. The first, known by the name of " Les Bergeres," is a sort of agricultural ballad, being danced with scythes, hoes, spindles, reels, &c. The second, called " Les Turques," is a sort of political ballad, if I may be allowed the expression. They dance with gravity in long rows, and make gestures of the profoundest deliberation.

The third, " Les Moresques, proprement dites," is a sort of amorous ballad. The knees of the men are hung with bells, and the women are adorned with flowers. The dance is a sort of volero, particularly towards the conclusion.

A fourth sort of dance is " Les Epées," a martial ballad. Here men and women are mixed in one chequered heap, and appear in a sort of furious engagement. The music of all these dances consists only of a fife and drum, quite in the Moorish manner.

A fifth national dance is " Les Chevaux Frux," or equestrian dance. From fifteen to twenty young lads are buckled on small pasteboard horses, upon which they appear to ride, although, in reality, they only stand in them. The upper part of their bodies is covered with ribands, nosegays, &c. Thus equipped, they have the appearance of old centaurs. They perform all sorts of movements, dance quadrillon, pursue each other in lines and zigzag, and exhibit the utmost variety of manœuvres amidst the incessant shouts of the spectators.

I shall conclude by mentioning a few games, no less characteristic than their dances. Among them may be reckoned the races, which are run in various ways ; for example, directly towards a given spot, over a ploughed field, in sacks, &c. ; leaping over hedges, ditches, ropes, scaffolds, jumping, with the feet bound to a certain point, or jumping in a circle, with a given number of movements ; feats with a spear and iron ball ; the game of ball, with common ball ; and a warlike game, where a small wooden trench is attacked and defended, and many similar ones, at all of which prizes, of more or less value, are distributed.

 LETTER XVII.

DESULTORY OBSERVATIONS.—SEVERE COLD.—ORIENTAL
 JEWS.—PERE CUEZZO.—THE ISLAND OF MARSEILLES.
 —CHRISTMAS NOSEGAYS.—UMBRELLAS.—LA SAINTE
 BAUME.—NANI.—THE FRENCH.

MARSEILLES, *January 1804.*

THIS is the last letter I shall write from this place, and I shall fill it with desultory remarks and information, just in the manner in which I noted them.

The mistral has now blown uninterruptedly for eight days, and all Marseilles is in consternation. “Ah mon Dieu, quel froid !” “Fa un fiéch despastellat !” resound on all sides. Men and women are enveloped like Greenlanders; and every street filled with mules, carrying fire-wood. The cold may have probably reached from twelve to fifteen degrees. God preserve us! strange that it should be more than three to four degrees—and even then the people of Marseilles would be more affected than a Russian with twenty. Happily, the cold seldom lasts here longer than three days, and seldom exceeds above six degrees.

If you see a man with pale, meagre, sharp countenance, and a dirty white turban, hastily striding through thick and thin, you may rely on his being an eastern Jew. Consider more attentively the strange mixture of Asiatic and African character displayed in his features, in which shrewdness is blended with knavery, and confidence with timidity; and you will find it deserving your attention.

See the same man on the exchange bidding for a lot of hides, wax, or semma, or bills on Constantinople or Smyrna, for which he can always procure ready cash, and give the best price; here he is a very important man, and turns millions in the year. Were it not for these Jews, how would it stand with the trade of the Levant?

If you like to sleep long in the morning, which, by the bye, you ought not; and if you should, besides this, have irritable nerves, you will be badly off in Marseilles. As soon as the day dawns a cannon is fired: it is the signal for opening the haven, which is closed every evening by a chain. Scarcely have

you again slumbered after the second firing, which announces its opening, than you are roused by the lamentable tones of "Pere cuezzo! Pere cuezzo! Tutte caude!" They announce, perhaps, the departure of some great personage?—By no means—they are only crying "Hot baked pears;" the usual breakfast of the labouring manufacturers. In the evening they eat baked turnips, and then every street rings with "Betterave; Betterave! Tutte caude! Tutte caude."

The islands of Marseilles are called Pomègues, Katonmeau, and If. At the first, which has a small haven, all ships supposed to be infected with the plague, lie to perform quarantine. Of the second, no use is made; but on the third is situated a little fort, formerly used as a state prison, but now as a place for depositing persons under sentence of transportation to Corsica and Elba.

Each of the islands have a small fortification, some guard-houses, and a few batteries; nothing else is to be found on them. They are about three leagues distant from Marseilles. It is impossible for the imagination to conceive a more melancholy view than that of seeing these three naked desolate rocky masses, lying in the midst of the gulph. They might be compared to three monstrous heaps of dross, especially when the sun shines on them.

On Christmas-day, no young woman, not even the poorest pedlar, is to be seen unadorned with a nosegay. The rich make theirs of roses and narcissuses; with both rich and poor it often forms the only covering of the bosom. The churches, the promenades, every place is filled with their odoriferous perfume.

At this season, in every window are found little green pyramidal bells. These are produced by sewing wheat or millet on cotton, with which the pyramid or bell has been previously covered. Those who are too poor to procure orange or rose-trees, decorate their windows in this simple manner.

In Marseilles, many umbrellas are made and sold at a very cheap rate. It is astonishing what a dread the people here have of being wet. The instant it begins in the least degree to rain, every person appears with an umbrella, not excepting porters and mule-drivers, fair-women and shoe-blacks. If they should even be half naked, still they will have an umbrella.

From whence can this arise? Perhaps, because it rains so seldom, and because they dread nothing so much as damp: they can bear hunger, thirst, fatigue, and great heat; but no wet. It rains—"Pluëgo! Pluëgo!" if a few drops fall on them, they think themselves past recovery.

La Sainte Baume—a naked high mountain, a grotto in a rock, to which you must ascend four hundred and fifty toises, is cer-

tainly nothing so very remarkable. But Mary Magdalen having passed the last penitential days of her life in this grotto, gives it an immediate interest, notwithstanding the loss of the pretty chapel and Dominican cloister destroyed during the revolution. La Sainte Baume still remains a favourite place of resort for pilgrims; but the wicked say only for the fair-sex, among whom are so many Magdalenes:—let him decide who fears not the hatred of the fair daughters of Marseilles. I, for my part, retire to my books.

Here I find a work, unquestionably a poetical masterpiece, a mystical blossom, the purest offspring of self-knowledge. This is the Magdaleniade of Father Pierre de St. Louis, and may be found printed in the collection of Monnaie.

Jean Louis Barthelemy, born at Valcas, in Provence, in 1626, was enamoured of a young woman named Magdalene. He was on the point of marrying her when she died. He gave himself up to despair, and resolved, in the Carmelite convent of his native place, to live alone to the memory of his beloved. In this situation of mind, no occupation seemed to suit him so well as the composition of a poem, whose theme was the patron saint of his departed mistress.

For five years had he laboured, almost night and day, without intermission, to complete it; and he is said to have studied for four-and-twenty hours for the following line, in which he offers a caput mortuum to the consideration of the saint:

“ Elle voit son futur dans ce present passé.”

He had it printed at Lyons, in 1661, under the title, “*La Magdelaine au desert de la Ste. Baume, en Provence, Poeme spirituel et chretien, en douze livres.*” It remained, however, during the life of the author, wholly unknown; but, on his death, it was rescued from oblivion by the Jesuit Beret, and afterwards was many times reprinted. I affix a few specimens.

ON THE SAINTS' CONVERSION.

“ Mais enfin Dieu changea ce charbon rubis;
 “ La corneille en colombe, et la louve en brebis;
 “ Un enfer en un ciel, le rien en quelque chose;
 “ Le chardon en un lys, l'épine en une rose;
 “ En grace le péché, l'impuissance en pouvoir;
 “ Le vice en la vertu, le chaudron en miroir.

The saint spent thirty years in the desert weeping over her past life.

“ Ces bois la font passer pour une hama-dryade;
 “ Ses larmes font penser, que c'est une nyade;
 “ Venez donc chaeux, et vous rencontrerez
 “ Une nymphe aquatique au milieu des forêts.”

In the sequel, the eyes of the saint are called, "Chandelles fondues;" now they are become "Moulins à vent," "Moulins à eau." The fair hair with which she wiped the feet of the Saviour is called, "Torchon doré;" the tears which God wept are called, "Eau de vie;" Christ is, "Le grande opérateur," "Le grand Hercule, qui purgea l'étable de son cœur," &c. &c.

In another place, we find the following curious discourse between the saint and the echo:

M. Que donne le monde aux siens le plus souvent?

Echo. Vent.

M. Que dois-je vaincre ici, sans jamais relâcher?

Echo. La chair.

M. Qui fut la cause des maux, qui me sont survenus?

Echo. Venus.

M. Que faut dire après d'une telle infidelle?

Echo. Fi d'elle.

It is natural to suppose that such a poet must have had a high idea of his verses, which led him to say:

"Si vous aimez des vers la grace et la douceur,
 "Les miens en ont assez, pour vous gagner la cœur;
 "Et si vous en cherchez les subtiles pensées,
 "Les pointes de ceux-ci ne sont point emoussées."

That he considered himself as a great poet from his *Eliade*, in which he describes the ascension of the prophet Elias, and through which he hoped to supplant the prophane *Iliad*. This poem has, however, remained unprinted, because, in the opinion of the Carmelites (who held their brother to be an eminent poet) it was too sublime!!

It is inconcievable how much provincial women can express with the two-syllable word *nani*; they have twenty modulations of it at least:—Sharp and quick! you may rely on it the fair one is really angry!—The first syllable long and the last hardly audible! now again you may hope a little!—Both syllables slowly pronounced! I wish you joy! It is the affirmation of affirmations!

Some houses of rendezvouz for sailors have taken the name of "Hotel des Quatre Parties du Monde;" and the weekly paper of Rouen appears with the title of "Cronique de l'Europe, et Petites Affiches de Rouen."

CHAP. XVIII.

JOURNEY FROM MARSEILLES TO TOULON.—AUBAGNE.—
 EUJES.—VAUX D'OLLIVULES.—THE FIRST ORANGERIES.
 —ARRIVAL AT TOULON.—TOPOGRAPHICAL PARTICULARS.—CLIMATE.—AGRICULTURE, &c.

Toulon, January 1804.

WE arrived here three days ago. No one enquired for our passes. This is, however, only an apparent negligence; for they had received a description of us before, and were acquainted with our having addresses to the marine-prefect.—No spy can elude the police here.

We commenced our delightful journey by the full light of the moon at four in the morning. The air was every where scented with the odours of spring. We soon passed the lovely Veau-nethel, and as rapidly proceeded to Aubagne, the native place of the celebrated Barthelemy (author of the *Travels of Anacharsis*, &c.) and famous on account of its wine (known by the name of "*Mulvoissier d'Aubagne*," Muscadine wine) and for its manufactures.

Eujes, situated at the skirt of a finely cultivated valley, is of less importance. Here we took dinner, and saw, for the first time, whole declivities covered with caper-plantations. At the back of this town the road leads through high chalky rocks, on whose highest point a detachment of soldiers are stationed; the only measure which could have cleared this post from the robbers which infested it. A dreary and desolate scene now presented itself, and the view of a *Pinus maritima* (or rosemary-bush) was a perfect rarity. At length the passage began to be straiter, and we entered the narrow pass covered with fragments of rocks, called, Vaux d'Ollivules; the extinguished volcano, the masses of black basaltes; the foaming streams from the mountains, the awful darkness; all reminded us of the entrance into the infernal regions.

These barren rocks, however, soon vanished, and gave place to others, whose gentle slopes were clothed with olive and pine-trees, with blooming almond trees and rich grass-fields. Yet, a few paces, and the orangeries of Ollivules burst on our sight.—

The rich green—the fruit of burnished gold—it was more like enchantment than reality!

The sun was just sinking into the purple deep, when, leaving Ollivules, we ascended the last acclivity, and were charmed with a clear view of the roads of Toulon, its towers, and its ships, and refreshed by the soft southern breezes from the ocean. When we reached the town, it was dark, and we found nothing but the bustle of war and the confusion of a sea-port.

Toulon has one of the pleasantest and most advantageous situations which can be imagined. On the north it is bounded by high mountains: on the south, by the ocean and gulph, which penetrates far into the land; on the east and west, by a small chain of mountains, running from the high northern ones into the sea. Thus is formed a fine valley about three leagues in width, on whose southern point lies the town of Toulon, containing 20,000 inhabitants.

Descending from the highest point of the town, the *Porte de France*, to the haven, you find the higher part, or old town, narrow and disagreeable, and the lower, or new town, beyond comparison, more airy and far better-built. In both it is, however, a real pleasure to observe, the streets cleansed and cooled by small streams running through them.

The sides of the northern mountains are quite bare; but those of the eastern and western are covered with plantations of vines, olives, figs, capers, &c. The whole valley is interspersed with fields, meadows, gardens, country houses, vineyards, &c. and intersected with innumerable streams and canals, brought from the mountains.

The climate of Toulon is certainly much milder and more healthy than that of Marseilles. It is true, the summers are hot, but nothing impedes the salubrious sea-winds. The winters are four and six degrees milder; the town being almost intirely protected from the cold winds. Every thing ripens three or four weeks earlier; indeed, a great part of the southern vegetation (date-trees, for example) stand the winter in the open air. For these reasons, the old naval officers chuse it, if possible, for their place of residence.

With respect to domestic economy, nothing is very cheap. Nine livres daily is the least for which a person can reside at the best and most reasonable inn, the *Hotel de Montanville*. A furnished robin in a private house costs from thirty to forty livres; a summer-house from twenty to twenty-four; and a whole ~~bastide~~ from four to five carolines per month. The prices of other articles are very similar to those of Marseilles. The best Malaga wine is sold for two livres the bottle. Every thing, even including the fine water from the mountains, is of the most excellent quality. But enough for to-day; my next shall contain her particulars.

LETTER XIX.

SOCIAL INTERCOURSE.—AMUSEMENTS.—GENERAL REMARKS. — MARINE ARSENAL. — GALLERIES. — FRENCH NAVAL FORCE.—ROADS.—FLEET, &c.

Toulon, *January 1804.*

WHOEVER expects to find the social resources or amusements of Marseilles in Toulon, will be greatly disappointed. The theatre is insignificant, the concert scarcely worth mentioning, and the general spirit of the place rather naval. Those who will entertain themselves, however, with marine affairs, walking, natural history, and the belles lettres, need never be at a loss.

For naval studies this place has many advantages: for instance, the arsenal, roads, dock-yards, and fleets, on account of which Toulon has been always famous. We have visited all, and have convinced ourselves that Buonaparte can do a great deal.

We were provided with letters of recommendation to the marine prefect; the Contre-Amiral Gantheaume, and his secretary, General Berard. The Admiral received us with true provincial cordiality. He spoke of Buonaparte, of Egypt, and Syria, with the freedom of a sailor, but ~~yet~~ mingled with attachment and respect. Monsieur Berard charmed us all with his amiability. Azuni, to whom I am indebted for the recommendatory letters, had not spoken of him too highly. Our wishes were instantantly fulfilled, and we were permitted to visit the fleet and arsenal for three successive days.

The arsenal lies between the haven and the parade. Pity that the fine entrance is situated in a narrow and remote street. When you have passed the forms of admission by the officer on guard, you find yourself in an open square, from which you can pass to the different parts of the arsenal. The first object that attracted our attention was the ruins of the grand magazine, nearly destroyed by the English in 1793. We hastened over the foundery and rope-grounds, on our right side, that we might spend the more time among the ships in the dock-yard, where we found ourselves, on all sides, encompassed with marines, sailors, and galley-slaves; on all sides surrounded with maritime bustle and activity.

From thence we proceeded to the famous dock, whose construction will surely immortalize the name of Grogard. It is a deep basin, enclosed in brick-work, in the haven of the arsenal; its form is that of a line-of-battle-ship, its length is 180; its breadth 80, and its depth 18 French feet.

In the front is a sluice-gate or lock, capable of being opened and shut at pleasure; and in the back a building, with 84 large pumps; by means of the former, the basin is filled with water for bringing the ships in; by means of the latter, it is emptied for repairing them. The inner side of the basin is provided with steps, at proper distances, for the purpose of getting more conveniently to all parts of the vessel, it is also furnished with many flights of steps leading from the bottom up to the quays.

From hence we passed through a strongly-guarded gate to the galleys, where we found other prisoners beside slaves. These galleys are old ships of war unrigged and unmasted, having their decks enlarged and covered with a roof about five or six feet high; they are encompassed with a gallery, and have, in the fore part, steps, which lead to the shore. The whole is painted red, and has the appearance of a barrack.

Having shewn our tickets to the captain, we received immediate permission to enter the largest of the galleys; the internal part was divided off by two long rows of benches, leaving a wide path in the middle; each bench contained four galley slaves, and had a hole opposite for the admission of air; in the back part was a kitchen, and on each side an apartment for the inspectors. The whole appeared to be much more cleanly, airy, and capacious, than is generally imagined. Each galley contains 1200 prisoners, whose lot, though hard enough, is by no means equal to the representations given of it.

It is true, the slaves are mostly chained two and two, have no other bed than the bare ground; no other covering than coarse rags; no nourishment, except what is usually allowed in prisons, and are, notwithstanding, doomed to the severest labour. Still there are a variety of modifications, by which the situation of many is rendered supportable.

First, the slaves are compelled to labour only every third day, on which they receive a larger portion of food. Secondly, should they behave well, they are, at the expiration of six, eight, twelve, or sixteen months, freed from their heavy chains, and confined only by a light ring on the foot; the slaves thus far emancipated work by pairs, but are no longer chained together. Thirdly, every one is at liberty to procure, either by his own labour, or the bounty of others, whatever necessaries a galley permits him to enjoy.

He may, for example, purchase for himself a mattress, better linen, cloaths, &c.; when it is his turn to labour, he may be exempt by paying another to work for him; he can send for meat, and even wine in moderation; and lessen the rigours of his situation in a variety of other ways.

Each galley receives properly, five hundred active slaves on board, and as they are paid by their employers and the sailors for extra-labour, the very poorest may always relieve himself to a certain extent.

Among the slaves living on their fortunes are frequently found men, who have formerly filled the most respectable situations. The galley we visited contained, of this description, among others, a general, who had sold false dismissals to banished persons; a lieutenant of marines, who had been found guilty on a charge of insubordination; a commissary of war, who had defrauded the treasury; and a secretary of the marine, who had given in false estimates.

To these (who were condemned for twenty or thirty years) the upper apartments were appropriated; they were distinguishable from the rest of the slaves by their dress, cleanliness, &c. and had laid out for their amusement little gardens, filled with orange and lemon-trees.

Among the slaves who live by their own exertions, are frequently found very skilful artisans and professional men. On board the galley of which we are now speaking, was an engraver, a musician, a watch-maker, and a goldsmith; of whom the inspector spoke in high terms. Every galley, besides half a dozen buffoons, has ten or twelve men who wash, an equal number of cooks, and at least four barbers.

We left the galley (where all the gradations of the passions may be traced in the various features of its inhabitants) and hastened to inspect the remaining parts of the arsenal; comprising the smith's, cooper's, and sail-maker's shops; the foundery and rope-grounds; the mast-maker's, baker's, and other places, which cannot be properly described without plates.

Adjoining to the smith's, we were shown a small cabinet, filled with a variety of nautical curiosities, and in the marine school a room, containing models of ships and instruments for teaching navigation, ship-building, &c.

The model of the basin, vessels, &c. was very interesting, as it conveyed a most perfect idea of the original, and appeared to have been executed with uncommon precision; yet we found in some others a great want of that cleanliness and elegance which distinguish the Dutch and English models.

Having examined the different parts of the arsenal, we saw that, notwithstanding the irregularity of its appearance, its form

is a perfect quadrangle, open on one side, having the dock and haven in the centre. A spirit of zeal and diligence seemed prevalent in every department, as well as a spirit of order and method; there appeared to us a greater want of hands than of materials for manufacturing; and we left the place with the conviction, that, although a most excellent commencement is made, yet a marine force is not to be raised like an army of conscripts; because in the former case, the greatest enthusiasm can never make good the want of experience.

This conviction was confirmed on the following morning, when we saw the fleet lying in the roads ready for sailing. We first went on board the admiral's ship, and were very cordially received by the famous Latouche; we visited many other vessels, and were treated with great politeness; we discovered throughout the whole, much order and discipline among the crews,—but yet a want of dexterity: this remark was allowed to be just, even by the admiral himself. Although all the ships were filled with troops, new companies were daily embarking. The fleet is victualled for six months, and every thing seems to designate an expedition to the West Indies.

The roads of Toulon are, with justice, reckoned among the first in Europe; few are equally large, and consequently, few equally secure; surrounded on all sides by mountains, and guarded by a number of forts, they at once defy both storms and every hostile enterprize. These picturesque mountains, covered with the most luxurious vegetation, the grand fleet, encompassed with innumerable small craft, the view of the town, and the high glittering ocean—form one of the finest scenes in the whole Mediterranean Sea.

LETTER XX.

TOULON.—PROMENADES IN THE TOWN.—THE COURSE.—THE PARADE.—THE QUAY.—THE RAMPART.—THE GLACIS.—THE VALLEY.—THE MOUNTAINS—EXCURSIONS.—LA VALETTE—RANDOL, &c. &c.—AQUATIC EXCURSIONS.—THE PENINSULA ST. MANDRIER.—NATURAL HISTORY.—BOTANY.—ICHTHYOLOGY.—CONCHOLOGY.—MINERALOGY.—REVEST.—BRONSANT.—EVENOS.—OBSERVATIONS ON THE INDUSTRY, TRADE, AND PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF TOULON.

Toulon, *January 1804.*

BUT the promenades! methinks I hear you say, are they numerous? are they varied? are they shady? I will describe

them as they really are; judge for yourself. In the town you find the course with only a tree here and there; the parade decorated with a double avenue of trees, which produces a very pleasant impression; the quay exposed to the meridian sun, but affording much nautical amusement; the rampart very retired, with a charming prospect.

In the suburbs is the Glacis, with tolerable walks, and many fine views. Farther on lies a foot-path between the meadows and vineyards of the valley; and finally, the sloping sides of the finely cultivated mountains.—Shade in truth, they have not; but we only spend the winter in Toulon.

For more extensive rambles, I mention to you several delightful places, Vallette, Belgoncier, Bandols, La Farlede, &c. &c. all in great repute for the salubrity of their air, fine vegetation, and enchanting scenery. To those who wish for a rural retreat, Vallette, only four miles distant from the town, is particularly desirable.

Have you a taste for aquatic-excursions? the roads (capable of containing three hundred ships) will give you ample scope for indulging it: on which occasion you must, by no means, omit visiting the lovely peninsula St. Mandrier; as I have been deprived of this pleasure, I will insert for you the account given of it by Brenger.

“The peninsula St. Mandrier—says he,—is about two thousand paces wide, and about a league in length, it is divided from cape Sepet, and the fort, by an arm of the sea flowing majestically along, like a fine stream. The house at which I resided, situated on the declivity of a hill, between the roads and the town, must not be passed over without a more minute description.

“You land on a fine green lawn, encompassed with gravel to resist the waves; by a gentle acclivity you are led through vines and olives to the garden-door; from whence you discover the house embosomed in jasmine, olives, and pomegranates; here, seated on a shady terrace, you may copiously inhale an accumulation of odours, borne to you on the breezes of the sea; beyond this is a hollow, filled with tuberoses, Arabian jasmynes, *Heliotropium Mignonette*, &c. and shaded by palm, pistachio, and cordia trees; farther on you meet with a walk formed by a double row of orange and pomegranate trees, leading to a cool grove of *Pinus maritima*, aspen, and poplar trees.

“At the back of the house you ascend a fine eminence, at whose extremity rises hill above hill, cloathed with vineyards and fig-trees; these are succeeded by an odoriferous vegetation of rosemary, myrtle, broom, &c. till having attained the summit, you rest under the friendly shade of firs and larches.

“Should you feel disposed to climb another mountain, you will

have gained the highest point of the peninsula, where, from the hermitage you command an unbounded view, including the vale of Toulon, the roads, and part of the ocean, as far as the islands of Hyeres."—Thus much for the pedestrian: we will now speak of that in which Toulon can interest the naturalist.

The fine botanical garden near the gate de France, superintended by Martin, surprises and charms the connoisseur, by displaying a variety of the scarcest and finest plants, from the Archipelago, Asia, Africa, and the West Indies, and prove what the climate and a southern sun are capable of effecting. In a private garden too, are a number of choice exotics, in all the splendor of their native soil. No less interesting are the exotics of southern Europe, growing on the mountains, and the aquatic plants found at the foot of the hills bounding the roads.

The treasures here open to the ichthyologist and conchologist, may be learnt in the celebrated work of Darluc, which I shall not now extract, that I may occupy the space with some oryctognostical descriptions and remarks (partly taken from Saussure) concerning the supposed volcanos of Revest, Bronssant, and Evenos.

Revest is a village lying two short leagues north of Toulon: on the side of a neighbouring mountain, volcanic remains are thought to have been discovered; but Saussure maintains, that those reddish thick layers are nothing but sand-stone, mixed with particles of white quartz, and red ochre; the component parts being kept together by a sort of calcareous cement. The country people call this stone "*Pierres colombales*," and distinguish it definitely from lava "*Pierres moresques*." It seems that by a chemical analysis, the cement before-mentioned being dissolved with nitric acid, the quartz fell to the bottom, and the ochre remained at the top and descended slowly.

From hence a rather steep road leads up to the extreme summit of the Montagne de Caume; when you have ascended part of the way, you may clearly discover the limestone resting without any intermediate support on the sand-stone; and at the same time analyse the structure of the limestone, which is very various; sometimes forming parallel flakes, which can conveniently be decomposed into vertical ones; but much more frequently large ones adhering to each other, rather convexed, but like the former, having the appearance of strata.

The pinnacle of the mountain rises, according to Saussure's computation, 408 toises above the level of the sea, commanding a very distant horizon; but the view on the land-side is far from agreeable, consisting of chalky and nearly shapeless mountains; whose barren sides are but sparingly spotted with a small portion of shrubs.

On the western side of the Montagne de Caume, you come to the village Broussant, where you may make many mineralogical observations. Here it is that you discover a stratum of pure violet-blue lava, and extremely porous, but not a single vestige of a crater. On the top of the hill you find a peculiar sort of stone, consisting of masses nearly vertically perforated, and irregularly separated; they are composed of three different substances, a ground of iron-grey, variegated with brimstone, coloured, interspersed with glittering particles of crystal: it seems to be a fair presumption, that it is not liquified stone, nor proper basalt; but only a basalt of a peculiar nature.

The next place famous for its reputed volcanic productions, the Everos: they appear, however, on close inspection, to be only amygdaloides interspersed with quartz and calcareous spar; upon the hardest the magnet operates very powerfully, on the softer ones slightly only, although both suffer a very strong attraction after being applied to the blow-pipe.

I must not omit directing your attention to the nakedness and sterility of these mountains, which, contrasted with the abundant cultivation within two miles of the coast, cannot fail to surprise every beholder; as you advance farther inland, nothing meets your eye but bare mountains of chalk, gravel, &c. It appears, from various documents, that they were formerly covered with the finest and most extensive forests, which have imprudently been destroyed. Hence we observe a want of wood and of meadow-land. The fertile earth no longer having any thing to keep it together, is washed away by the heavy rains; while the springs and brooks are dried up: hence the lower extremities of these mountains are continually exposed either to a parching aridity, or to violent rains. But I must hasten to speak of the manufactories, of which there exist only those for night-caps, stockings, and coarse woollen cloths; the famous ones for soap being removed to the towns on the coast of Genoa. The hat-manufactories have nearly sunk into decay, but a few manufactories for refining wine, and some brandy-distilleries, have lately been established.

The trade here is chiefly confined to the coast and provinces. Toulon conveys the produce of the adjacent country, viz. wine, oil, capers, figs, oranges, almonds, &c. to Marseilles and Genoa; and receives from thence French, Spanish, Italian, and Northern productions. The merchants who transact the most business with this place, seem little more than agents for Marseilles; while the chief support of the town is derived from the navy.

Toulon can boast but of few public institutions, either for the instruction of youth, or for the relief of the poor. For the former

I have only observed a Lyceum, an "Ecole de Navigation," and an "Ecole de Santé Navale;" for the latter only a "Hospice Militaire," and two "Hospices Civils."

The literary society so well known by the title of "Société Libre du Var," does not meet at Toulon, but in Draguignan, the chief town of the department, and the seat of the prefect. In this place appears a weekly paper, called "Bulletin du Département du Var."

LETTER XXI.

ARRIVAL IN HYERES.—INTERESTING ACQUAINTANCE.—
SITUATION OF THE TOWN.—VIEW OF THE COUNTRY.
—AIR AND CLIMATE.—DOMESTIC ECONOMY.—EXCEL-
LENCE OF PROVISIONS.—HINTS FOR TRAVELLERS, &c.

HYERES, Jan. 1801.

ARRIVED at last in my lovely little southern Patmos, I daily wander over its delightful mountains and beautiful vale. That I find little novelty, must be admitted; but every deficiency is made up by an acquaintance I have formed with Baron Reizenstein, ambassador at Paris, from Baden, since 1793; who is, in the fullest sense of the word, an excellent man!

But you wish me to speak of the situation of Hyeres. It is, indeed, happily chosen, lying in a delightful vale, open on the south to the sea, and bounded on the north-east and west by towering mountains. The northern chain of mountains is divided from the western by a narrow pass, being the road to Toulon, at whose sloping entrance is the town, divided into three distinct parts. The suburbs, which skirt the mountains, are tolerably cheerful and cleanly; the town itself, in the centre, is very dark and dirty; and the old town, on nearly the highest part, presents a heap of uninhabited ruins. The suburbs are, on every account, to be preferred, and have, on the whole, a neat and rural appearance, but do not display any thing either splendid or romantic. The population of Hyeres is estimated at seven thousand souls, but two thousand may be fairly deducted.

The vale on which it is built is nearly circular, the surrounding mountains are picturesquely formed, and partly covered with fertile plantations of fruit-trees, ever-green oaks, &c. and command a prospect of the vale, variously interspersed with gardens, villas, meadows, and fields: of which, however, only two thirds can be cultivated, the other consisting of marshy ground, running into the sea.

However sultry or unhealthy the climate may be in the summer, or from May till October, in the winter it is doubly to be recommended for its mildness and salubrity. If we deduct 20 or 24 cold rainy or windy days, it may be, without exaggeration, affirmed, that the whole winter resembles a fine spring.

Although Hyeres is not entirely defended from the *mistral*, which forces itself through the pass in the mountains; yet it blows here with less violence and frequency, and is, besides, by no means so penetrating as in Marseilles. Although the thermometer may possibly fall to the freezing point, and even, as in 1709, 1768, and 1789, five or six degrees lower; yet these are very rare instances.

A mild temperature and excellent air render Hyeres a desirable winter residence. Inhale but this pure balsam for a few months, and you will become another being!

Provisions are here of the best kind. The water is pure and light; the bread fine and of a good flavour; the wine by no means bad: it is best, however, to send for wine from Toulon, which is not attended with the least difficulty. Here is an abundance of fish, venison, poultry, &c. and the mutton of Hyeres is particularly famous. The fruit, particularly strawberries, oranges, and pomegranates, are deservedly in high estimation; and the vegetables, particularly artichokes, are proverbially fine. Cow's milk and butter are now no longer rarities, as in the time of Zulzer: whatever else the stranger may want, is easily procured from Toulon; to which place a conveyance goes daily. To persons preferring to reside at an inn, I recommend the Hôtel des Ambassadeurs; here you find a charming prospect and good accommodation. Should you prefer living in a private house, you may have a newly furnished house in the country for from one to two, or from three to four livres per month. A single room in the town costs from twenty to forty livres per month, according to the number of foreigners there.

Should you wish to provide for yourself, you may have a cook in your house for three livres per day, or be assisted by the persons with whom you lodge. I must, however, observe, that the former is very expensive, and the latter very inconvenient. Should you like to be provided with board, you may either dine at the table d'hôte, or in a separate room, for which you may agree at thirty or forty sous. If you are accustomed to certain dishes, or confined to a certain diet, you find it no objection. My opinion, however, is, that the stranger would do better to board and lodge, as above-mentioned, for from six to twelve livres. You are excellently attended, have no trouble, and upon the whole live at a cheaper rate.

I shall conclude this letter with a few desultory remarks, for the benefit of future travellers. If you have need of a physician, you will find in Doctor Pannon a very skilful one. If you wish to ride out every day, you may be gratified for from thirty to thirty-five sous. If you chuse a private house, be sure to fix on the highest part of the town, taking care to shun the damp northern side. As most of the floors are of stone, you should insist on carpets, and to provide yourself with socks, fur-shoes, &c.

LETTER XXII.

MUSEMENTS OF HYIERES.—SOCIAL LIFE.—READING.—PROMENADES.—EXCURSIONS.—SALT-WORKS.—THE ETANG.—THE PENINSULA GIENS.—THE ISLANDS.—NATURAL HISTORY, PARTICULARLY BOTANICAL AND MINERALOGICAL REMARKS.—AGRICULTURAL AND STATISTICAL REMARKS, &c.

HYIERES, Jan. 1804.

WHAT social intercourse can be found in Hyeres? Certainly too little, although of other amusements there are, on that account, the more. Every thing depends on the number of strangers; when there are many, viz. when it is a good year, balls, concerts, assemblies, literary circles, all follow of course. When it is a bad year, the amusements are less numerous; but pleasure is always to be found in Hyeres.

For those who like reading, there is a pretty private library here; besides which, books may be had with great facility every day from Toulon; and you may, every evening, read the best newspapers and journals by the post, for about three Louis d'ors in the whole.

The promenades, both in the vale and around the mountains, are so various, so picturesque, abounding in romantic spots; in extensive and grand prospects of land and sea, in the most brilliant colours:—but no one can describe these scenes better than Baron Reizenstein.

The pretty hermitage on a fine hill in the vicinity of the sea, forms an interesting excursion; it is called Chapelle de Nôtre Dame de l'Assumption; beyond that the Montagne des Oiseaux (Montagne de Carqueirane), from whose summit you may enjoy the most exquisite prospect: still farther are the salt-works on the beach, the Etang, the peninsula Giens, and the islands—all amply repaying the trouble of a visit.

The salt-works consist, as usual, of a number of small basins, separated by canals that may be shut at pleasure: it is both instructive and pleasant to see the manner in which the salt-water is admitted, mixed with river water, and conducted from basin

to basin, till it forms crystals: this can only take place in summer, viz. from May to September. The magazine, habitations of the superintendants, excisemen, &c. form the appearance of a little sea-port. The salt is mostly sent to Toulon, Marseilles, and Genoa, and produces a revenue of 400,000 livres.

The Etang is about four English miles from the town, situated in the centre of an isthmus running from the southern coast; it is about a league long, and half a league broad, and is divided into two parts by a narrow slip of land: at the southern end a salt-canal has been made, and many niches cut in it, by which Hyeres is plentifully supplied with fish. The three little islands in the midst of the Etang, contain a great number of aquatic birds, particularly recommended to the notice of sportsman.

The eastern part of the isthmus, in whose centre the Etang is placed, joins the roads of Hyeres, and is called la Plage de la Manarre;—the lower part of the isthmus is the peninsula Giens, containing a variety of interesting objects.

The three islands of Hyeres are called Porquerolles, Porticra, and du Levant. The first is the most western, the largest and most woody; it contains about eighty-five inhabitants: the second lies three leagues farther to the east, more elevated, very fertile, and has about fifty inhabitants: the last is inhabited the least, fruitful, and about three quarters of a league distant from the second in a similar direction.

These islands may all be seen from Hyeres, from which they are between four or five leagues distant; they are defended by small forts, and covered by a vegetation of lavender and strawberries. Porticra is the only one having a haven. The beautiful basin in which they lie, (about five and twenty sea leagues long, and fifteen wide) is called the roads of Hyeres.

In all these perambulations the naturalist, the agriculturist, and mineralogist, may make a variety of interesting observations.

The mountains deserve to be examined on account of the matter composing them: the northern ones consist of slate, and the southern ones of lime-stone, modified, however, by a variety of mixtures and gradations. The most remarkable is the micaceous earth on the Island St. Jean, and the singular union of lime and spar on the Montagne des Oiseaux.

What a number of southern plants, distinguished by their beauty and variety, arrest the attention of the botanist at every step; while the manifold sorts of oranges and lemons, open to the pomologist an infinite field of enquiry!

Not less interesting is the system of agriculture adopted in the south of France, and which may here be studied with much

pleasure and profit. Here where fruit, vegetables, and flowers attain the highest perfection, he may convince himself, that the **Capeau**, in union with small brooks, produces this fertility, but **at the same time** forms the unhealthy morasses which extend along the coast, in length a league, and in breadth a quarter of a league: the exhalations arising from these morasses occasion the epidemic diseases of the southern summer. We may expect some very copious and accurate information on the agriculture and natural history of this place, from Volney, who has been spending some weeks here.

The chief products exported from Hyeres, are oil, wine, fruit, vegetables, and flowers, which are sent, almost exclusively, to **Marseilles** and **Toulon**. The oranges alone are very productive; at present they sell a thousand for forty-five livres. In the summer they export by water, loading the vessels at the beach near the salt-works; but in winter all merchandize must be conveyed at least as far as **Toulon** by land, the coast being much too dangerous.

The draining the marshes, forming a canal as far as Hyeres, finishing a secure haven, already commenced by **Ceinturon**, might be completed for thirty thousand livres, and would be followed by the most beneficial effects to the health, the trade, and opulence of the inhabitants; but for a century all has evaporated in empty wishes.

To the observer of human nature, Hyeres is very interesting. The people are distinguished from the inhabitants of all other provinces, by refinement and gentleness of manners; they are worldly minded, and possess that pliability of character which enables them to gain the favour of persons from all nations of the world. They understand the management of the sick, even to the most trifling minutiae; with an inordinate love of gain, they never forget the preservation of this fame: much as they depend upon strangers, they always regard them as sacred.

How inexpressibly sweet are here the tranquil hours of solitude, enjoyed under the serenest heaven, embosomed in a land of ever-blooming sweets:—here have I felt a soft ecstacy unknown before; for here it was that the illustrious princess once stood, whose approbation is my pride; whom to honour is the happiness of my life; whose name Europe utters with reverence; and whose fame the history of the sciences will render immortal!

I cannot conclude this letter, I think, more acceptably, than with a few general hints for the advancement of your health and convenience.

I take it for granted that, since you have allotted only twelve hundred dollars for the expences of your journey hither, you are without a servant, and master of the French language; that you

are provided with letters of credit from a substantial house, a passport from the French ambassador, and with letters of recommendation for every important town through which you intend to pass : but this is not enough for one in your precarious state of health.

In order to avoid the detestable post-carriages, you would do well to hire a separate conveyance at Frankfort on the Main, alighting at the Weidenhof, to rest yourself. This house is particularly to be recommended to sick travellers, for its open eastern situation; from whence you may continue your route, either through Alsace or Swisserland.

Should you chuse the former, you may go to Strasburg; in the diligence, in about forty hours, where you will find another equally convenient to take you to Lyons. In the latter case, you can proceed to Basle, in the imperial diligence, fitted up quite in the French style, where you will meet with another to convey you to Geneva; from whence you proceed to Lyons with a comier. At Strasburg, the house of Weiss is well known for its fine situation and extreme cleanliness. At Basle, you would do well to lodge with Iselin, at The Three Kings; and at Geneva, aux Balances, where you will be well satisfied with the attendance and table. Should you prefer an interior inn, you will, perhaps, do better to put up at the Krone.

At Lyons, where you will, of course, rest a few days, there is good accommodation at the Parc au Parc, situated in the Place de Ternaux; or the Hôtel des Ambassadeurs, in the Place Bellecour. From Lyons you can go to Marseilles in the diligence; but you must take your place in time, or you will not procure one. I should advise you by no means to go by water.

When you arrive at Marseilles, do not neglect to chuse an open and sunny residence, should you design to stay there for any length of time. You would find it conducive to health to let your food be simple, chiefly consisting of mutton, fruits, and wine, which you here find (as before remarked) in high perfection.

When you wish to proceed to Hyeres, take the diligence, which sets off at four in the morning, and arrives at Toulon between six and seven in the evening. From thence, I should advise you to take a horse, and proceed to Hyeres, sending your baggage by the errand-cart. If you manage your journey thus, it will not cost you more than six livres; otherwise, you must pay ten or twelve.

The best time for visiting Hyeres is the middle of September, returning to Germany at the end of April, by which you avoid the autumnal storms.

On your arrival in France, do not omit to enquire what is esteemed contraband. Shew your money without hesitation, but do not forget to ask for a *passee-avant*, which will readily be granted. Do not omit to use your worsted stockings, shoes, and other warm clothing, with which you have, of course, been careful to provide yourself, and which are indispensable for the preservation of your health. Adieu.—My next will be from Nizza, to which place I am now hastening.

LETTER XXIII.

ARRIVAL AT NIZZA.—COUNTRY AND CULTURE.—SITUATION OF THE TOWN—THE RAMPARTS.—TERRACE—OBSERVATIONS ON THE TRADE, INDUSTRY, AND CLIMATE.—DOMESTIC ARRANGEMENTS.—AMUSEMENTS.—GENERAL REMARKS, &c.

Nizza, January 1804.

HAVING taken shipping at Hyeres, I landed here after a dangerous navigation of three days, and was enchanted with the view of the lovely gardens, and groves of almond and orange-trees on the opposite shore. There are various conveyances from Hyeres to Nizza by land, the post, the courier, the diligence, or return conveyances, by water you may take either a felucca to yourself, which is very expensive, or take your passage in a coasting-vessel, which is very inconvenient.

The country round Nizza is in an excellent state of cultivation; particularly the last half league before you reach the town, presenting a beautiful and variegated assemblage of houses, gardens, vineyards, &c. &c. on each side of the road. farther on you come to the old Benedictine abbey of St. Pons; and beyond that to the late Franciscan cloister Cimiez. From the terraces of both, but particularly of the latter, you may contemplate the most magnificent and inviting prospect.

The town lies at the foot of the mountain Montalban, and by no means abounds in remarkable edifices, although most of the churches are internally well decorated, that worthy of the most attention is the cathedral, where it is easy to perceive that you are on the borders of Italy.

The ramparts afford a charming display of fine scenery, presenting, as it were, a new object at every step.

Not less delightful is the long and spacious terrace adjoining the shore of the gulph, from whence you may contemplate a variety of pleasing objects, and enjoy the most refreshing sea-breezes.

The trade of Nizza is certainly an insignificant provincial one: its chief articles are oil, silk, oranges, lemons, and vegetables; for which are returned (chiefly from Marseilles and Genoa) corn, shawls, linen, hardware, spices, sugar, coffee, salt, &c.

The principal branch of industry appears to be the preparation of perfumery, which has increased very much, to the great injury of Grasse, since the union of this place with France.

The climate of Nizza (during the five months) is undoubtedly the mildest and most salubrious in all the south of France. Deducting a few storms preceding and following the winter solstice, it is impossible to live under a milder heaven. Nothing is to be apprehended from cold, the high chain of Alps entirely barring its access: this mild temperature produces, however, one evil, and that not a slight one; I mean the number of insects which abound, not only here, but in Hyeres and Marseilles; particularly the large guats, which, notwithstanding the use of iron bedsteads, moss-beds, nets, fumigations, &c. always remain a great nuisance.

Every article is here full as expensive as in Marseilles, perhaps, even more so. On your arrival, you may go to the Hôtel de York, in the place St. Dominique; after which it would be better to take lodgings in the suburbs, making a definite agreement for every thing you wish to have, and being very particular as to the cleanliness of the furniture. Take care to avoid living in a country-house, as they are generally damp and unhealthy during the winter. I would not advise you to provide your own food, but agree to have it sent from an hôtel: and as the water is bad, you should never use any without passing it first through a filtering-stone.

Beside the variety of charming promenades with which Nizza abounds, there is a theatre, a casino, a reading-room, and a circulating library, by no means to be despised.

LETTER XXIV.

WAY TO VILLAFRANCA.—SITUATION.—WARM CLIMATE,
AND FINE VEGETATION.—WAY TO MONACO.—PICTU-
RESQUE SCENERY.—HAVEN, AND TRADE.—MENTON.—
REMARKS.

VILLAFRANCA, *January, 1804.*

YOU see I am constantly advancing along the coast, and shall conclude this from Menton, a little sea-port. Villafranca is not more than three quarters of a league from Nizza; it is most pleasant to go by water. The view of the roads, the high
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mountains, the isthmus, the distant scenery formed by the town; the woods, the little batteries peeping between the lofty trees, with a number of other interesting objects, were truly picturesque and delightful.

The climate of Villafranca seems to be still hotter than that of Nizza, from the concentrations of the sun's rays between the mountains. The *Ceratoria siliqua* may here be seen in as much perfection as in Catalonia; and were it not for the indolence of the inhabitants, ananas might also be grown: the little isthmus is, however, well cultivated, and produces the finest oranges, lemons, and olive-trees, some of the latter having trunks six feet in diameter.

From Villafranca I passed over to Monaco, preferring the land conveyance, though inconvenient, for the sake of enjoying the fine country, and was fully recompensed when I ascended Mount Eza, by the prospects from its towering summit. From thence I proceeded to the little village Eza, which lies on the sea-shore, on a steep declivity; and passed on through naked and gloomy rocks to La Turbia, where the remains of a monument, erected to the honour of the emperor Augustus, are still to be seen. A few paces behind Turbia, Monaco is discoverable, standing on a rock united to the main land by an isthmus, which may be considered as a sort of peninsula.

You now descend one high mountain, and ascend another, until you finally reach Monaco, which consists of nothing more than about half a dozen miserable and thinly inhabited streets, forming the town, to the left of which lies the castle.

The only thing worthy of notice in this "Petit Paris," as the inhabitants call'd it before the revolution, is a beautiful terrace, formerly belonging to a convent of nuns, commanding a fine and extensive prospect as far as Corsica.

The rocks on which Monaco lies, are overgrown with *Cactus opuntia*, and form a sort of winding harbour, tolerably secure, except with an east wind. Monaco derives, however, little advantage from it, as it possesses only some small craft for the conveyance of oil and lemons to Nizza and Marseilles. It would be unjust to omit mentioning the politeness of the inhabitants, although Monaco is one of the most wretched places in the whole department.

MONACO, January, 1804.

A PICTURESQUE country, and a profusion of lemon-trees, announced to me my approach to this opulent little town: in fact, the lemon-trees constitute its whole wealth. The fruit is sent by the inhabitants to France, England, Holland, and Den-

mark; there are individuals whose gardens produce them from 10 to 12,000 livres per annum, although a thousand lemons never sell for more than 25 livres: as Menton has no harbour, foreign ships are obliged to anchor a quarter of a league distant open sea, where they receive the lading from small vessels.

The inhabitants appear to be very good-natured and obliging. A stranger may, without scruple, enter a lemon-garden, and runs no risk of offending the proprietor should he gather some of the fruit. The finest of these gardens belongs to Carnolet castle, formerly the property of the prince of Monaco, and sold during the revolution for a mere trifle.—I must also mention that, at a small distance from Menton, grow a quantity of fine palm-trees, whose branches are sent to Italy, and form no inconsiderable part of the trade of this town.

APPENDIX.

QUARANTINE REGULATIONS

AT

MARSEILLES.

INTRODUCTION.

THE plague can only be propagated by touching infected objects.—This maxim is the foundation upon which all quarantine regulations are founded. No communication is held until the possibility of infection is vanished, or the perfect health of the suspected objects is fully ascertained:—this fundamental principle must be recognized in every stage of quarantine. Thus it is in Marseilles, where every thing is under the direction of a board of health, subject alone to the control of government.

In order clearly to understand the excellent and celebrated quarantine laws of Marseilles, a distinction must be made between the preparatory measures and the proper quarantine. Under the former is comprehended every thing relating to the examination of suspected ships, &c. Under the latter, every thing necessary for cleansing and purifying them. Of both I shall speak at large.

EXAMINATION OF THE CERTIFICATES.

ALL ships coming from the Levant, and other suspected ports, must anchor, on their arrival, in the gulph of Marseilles, near the Island Pomigues, a few sea-leagues from the town. Here they are examined from the fort by means of a speaking-trumpet:—"Where do you come from?—What is your name?—What is your lading?—What certificate have you?"

Upon the certificate depends the necessity of performing quarantine, and its duration. These are received from the French consul, in the place where the ship takes in her lading, and contain every particular concerning the state of health there, exactly and conscientiously set forth: according to the variations they contain, they are called "*Patente nette*," or "*touchée*;" "*Patente soupçonnée*," or "*brute*."

They are called "*Patente nette*," when the state of health is described as perfectly free from every infectious disease. "*Patente touchée*," when the ship, though at the time free from sick persons, came to them from a suspected port. "*Patente soupçonnée*," when they declare there prevailed in the port where the vessel came from, a pestilential or epidemical disease; or that she held communication with caravans coming from countries where the plague rages; and finally, "*Patente brute*," when they expressly declare, that the plague rages in the haven, or adjacent country, and that goods are on board coming from thence.

According to these certificates are the nature and duration of quarantine decided, and for their authenticity the consul must answer with his life.

No ship coming from a suspected port or harbour can be admitted: and should the captain have, in this respect, been guilty of negligence, or insincerity, it exposes him to many inconveniences, and severe punishment.

According to these certificates is determined near what part of the island the newly arrived vessel shall anchor. Ships with "*Patente nette*," and "*touchée*," remain in the usual harbour of the island, where the place is assigned to each: vessels, on the contrary, with "*Patente soupçonnée*," and "*brute*," must anchor in a small cove called *la Grande Prise*, on the north side of the harbour.

As soon as the ship is at anchor, the captain must go to the habitation of the "*Substitut du Bureau*," a clerk appointed by the board of health for this purpose;—and here commences (naturally at a necessary distance) a new and minute examination, which, when taken down in writing, is transmitted to the chief board. Captains having "*Patentes nettes*," and "*touchées*," receive permission to go to the *Consigne*; while those who have "*Patentes soupçonnées*" and "*brutes*," are sent to the lazaretto: in order, however, to prevent all communication with them in the interval, a "*Bateau de Service*" is appointed to tow them to the place of destination.

The *Consigne* is a building where the chief board of health sits; it is situated to the left, at the entrance of the haven of *Marseilles*, under the fort of *St. Jean*, and is built on a rising ground: it contains three large rooms, some small ones, an antichamber,

and magazine; all the windows provided with iron grates. In the fore-part is a pier where the boats are brought up. When the captain arrives, the first thing is to administer the oath; but for this, no bible is used, and only a square paper with the beginning of St. John's gospel; this, covered with glass, and pasted to a board of the same size, is reached to him with a long handle, while the officer pronounces with a loud voice, "Swear, that you will speak the truth!"

After this formality, which is never omitted, commences a minute enquiry:—"Where do you come from?—What is your name?—What lading have you?—When did you sail?—Have you run in any where during your voyage, or held any communication at sea?—What luggage have you?—What passengers have you?—What is the general state of health on board your vessel?"—In a word, they make every enquiry possible in such a case; after which the captain must deliver his certificate, by placing it in a split stick, which is held to him for the purpose: when it has been dipped in vinegar, it is spread out on a board for the perusal of the intendant, who compares it with the declaration before received, and only pronounces it "regular" in case of the most perfect accordance.

Should the captain have letters, he must deliver them in like manner: those for the government and persons of rank are fumigated, those for the merchants are immersed in vinegar, and cut open at the edges, and carefully searched, to prevent the enclosure of patterns, &c.

For fumigating the letters, an oaken cylinder is used, six French feet in height, and a foot and a half in diameter, covered at every joint with iron; the top is provided with a cover, and the bottom entirely open: two feet below the cover, a small grate is placed, and under that a ring, which exactly fits a coal fire of the same size. When letters are to be fumigated, they are laid on the grate, and the cylinder placed over the fire into which the perfume has been previously thrown; by the closing the lid, the evaporation is prevented, and the letters absorb the smoke in every part, while the writing and paper remain uninjured.

This being ended, the captain returns to Pomegues, where, under a guard, he awaits the resolution of the board as to the nature of the quarantine he must hold. Should his "Patente" be "soupçonnée," or "brute," and he be subjected to the lazaretto, he is again examined on the quay, and must then return on board, in expectation of farther orders.

SUBJECTION TO THE QUARANTINE.

THERE are four things which have an influence in the appointment of quarantine with respect to its nature and duration, viz. the certificate, the goods, the harbour from whence the vessel comes, and the incidents which may have happened during the voyage.

With respect to the first, it has been spoken of; we therefore pass on to the second, namely, the goods, which are classed as either susceptible of infection (*susceptibles*), or not susceptible (*non-susceptibles*.)

Those susceptible of infection are, wool of every kind, cotton raw and spun, flax, hemp, oakum, goat's hair, silk, linen, woollen-stuffs of all kinds, sponge, furs, morocco, dry skins, books, parchment, Spanish-leather, paste-board, feathers, coral-beads and rosaries, hardware, cloaths, money, fresh flowers, untarred hemp, and cordage.

Goods not susceptible are, spices of all sorts, coffee, opium, tobacco, raw coral, undressed hides, gauze, pearl-ash, nitre, wax, ivory, gall-nuts, natrum, grain, shell, fruits of all sorts, ore, plants used for dying, cochineal, ashes and soda, oil, minerals, salt meat, dried fruits, wine, spirits, and liquids in general, horn, esparto, tallow, and tarred cordage.

The vessels are all classed for their quarantine according to the harbours from which they come. Those from Dalmatia, as far as Egypt and Morocco, come under the first mentioned quarantine; those from Tripoli and Algiers, in the second; and those from Constantinople, Smyrna, the Black Sea, &c. in the third: this class extends also to the Spanish, Italian, and North-American harbours, (on account of the yellow-fever) according as the ship was laden nearer or farther from these places.

The fourth or last point influencing the nature and duration of the quarantine, is formed by the incidents occurring before or during the voyage, for example: When the plague raged for the last time, and how long in such sea-port?—Whether, during the passage, any person or persons had become ill, or died?—Whether the ship had been boarded by a corsair?—Whether he ran into one or more suspicious ports?—Whether he has had any suspicious communications while at sea?

In order more clearly to shew the modifications of the quarantine, we state it as follows:

1. Ships with “Patente nette,” but having on board “susceptibles,” from any of the sea-ports east of Dalmatia, Egypt, and Morocco, must perform quarantine twenty days.

II. Ships with "*Patente touchée*," having similar goods, and coming from the same port, must hold quarantine twenty-five days.

III. Ships with "*Patente soupçonnée*," goods similar from the same harbour, must submit to twenty-five days quarantine, and the goods are, during nine days, exposed to the air.

IV. Ships with "*Patente brute*," lading the same, perform quarantine thirty days, preceded by a fourteen days' airing of the goods on board.

V. Ships with "*Patente nette*," lading "*non susceptibles*," coming from the same port, must perform quarantine eighteen days; those with "*Patente touchée*," twenty days; with "*Patente soupçonnée*," twenty-five days, and fourteen days previous airing of the goods; with "*Patente brute*," thirty days quarantine, and fourteen days previous airing of the goods on board.

VI. Ships with "*Patente nette*," goods "*susceptibles*," from the ports of Tripoli and Algiers, must be twenty-eight days in quarantine; with "*Patente touchée*," from the same port, cargo the same, thirty days; with "*Patente soupçonnée*," cargo the same, coming from the same port, thirty-five days, and fourteen days airing of the goods on board; with "*Patente brute*," lading the same, from the same port, forty days, and three weeks airing of the goods on board.

VII. Ships with "*Patente nette*," goods "*non susceptibles*," coming from the same port, hold quarantine twenty-five days; with "*Patente touchée*," thirty days; with "*Patente soupçonnée*," thirty-five days, and ten days airing of the goods; with "*Patente brute*," forty days quarantine, and fourteen days airing of the goods on board.

VIII. All vessels coming from Constantinople, the Channel, Smyrna, and the ports of the Black Sea, are, without regard to their "*Patente*," or lading, or any distinction whatever, considered as vessels with "*Patente brute*," goods "*susceptible*."

OBSERVATIONS.

THE common quarantine regulations are to be observed only when nothing has happened before or during the voyage; should a ship, for example, sail fourteen days after the ceasing of the plague, it is condemned to the most rigid quarantine; should it have ceased from sixty to seventy days previous to the sailing, the quarantine is less strict; has it ceased from seventy to eighty days, it is observed as in "*Patente touchée*," and only after the eightieth day, observed as "*Patente nette*."

Should the ship have been boarded by a corsair, the question then recurs, From what port was he dispatched? and should the plague have raged there, the ship must observe quarantine as

with “*Patente touchée* ;” but should the plague have raged in that port at the time the corsair left it, the quarantine must be performed as with “*Patente brute*.” If, however, the vessel have been forty days at sea since the boarding, without any one becoming sick, or dying, the customary quarantine is only prolonged ten days.—I now proceed to speak of the manner of performing quarantine.

QUARANTINE.

By quarantine we understand all things relating to cleansing and purifying a vessel : these vessels may be either suspected of infection, or actually infected. In both these cases, however, the same regulations must be observed, excepting only some trifles. For the sake of order we shall speak separately of the quarantine of the ship itself, that of the crew, passengers, and goods.

QUARANTINE OF THE SHIP.

THE ship, on its arrival off Pomegues, is obliged to remain in that part of the harbour where it first anchored. It is attended by two guard-boats, and several soldiers are sent on board to prevent all communication, and to see that no other vessel approaches within a hundred toises of the island ; and that the whole ship is, every where, daily washed and cleansed.

QUARANTINE OF THE CREW, &c.

WITH the quarantine of the ship, that of the crew and passengers is also connected ; the first receive their food from a considerable distance, reached to them with long poles : the crew of every ship is allowed by law to fish in the harbour, yet in such a manner as not to have the slightest communication with the shore. Every sailor is examined daily by the guard on board, and should the least symptom of fever be perceived, he is instantly removed to the lazaretto : as is the body of every person dying on board, that it may be carefully dissected.

Besides this, an account of the situation of every one on board, and of every occurrence, is daily transmitted to the board for consideration.

The passengers have their choice whether they will perform quarantine on board the ship, or in the lazaretto : should they prefer the former, it must be with the consent of the captain ; should they wish the latter, they must live there at their own expence. Few wish to remain on board, unless led to it from avarice or

extreme poverty. In the latter case, the captain may be forced to keep them on board, without any remuneration.

Passengers repairing to the lazaretto cannot leave the vessel till all their luggage is strictly examined. They are conveyed in the ship's boat, which is towed by a quarantine-boat. On their arrival at the lazaretto, they are received in a thick cloud of smoak, prepared for fumigating them, and immediately attended by a guard, who conducts them to their room, and never leaves them during their stay: their cloaths, &c. are hung up in an arcade to air.—If there be animals in the ship, those with long hair are cleansed on board; short-haired ones are forced to swim to land. Birds are sprinkled with vinegar, and then regarded as purified.

QUARANTINE OF GOODS.

It must be here, in the first place observed, that both the quality of the goods, and the purport of the certificate, may make an essential difference in the manner of performing quarantine: the quality of the goods decides whether they must be conveyed to the lazaretto, or whether they may remain on board; the certificate decides whether they must be purified on board previous to being taken to the lazaretto.

Corn, shell-fruit, ore, bars of metal, ashes, soda, oil, minerals, salt meat, dried fruits, wine, spirits, horn, esparto, tallow, and tarred cordage, may remain on board.

Wool of all kinds, cotton raw and spun, flax, hemp, oakum, goat's-hair, silk, linen, stuffs, and shawls of all sorts, sponge, furs, raw and dried hides, morocco, books, parchment, Spanish-leather, pasteboard, feathers, strung beads and rosaries, hardware; all articles manufactured with cotton, silk, wool, hemp, flax; money, luggage of all sorts, fresh flowers, untarred cordage, spices, coffee, and tobacco in sacks, bags, and bales, wrought copper and copper-filings, cochineal, plants for dying, wax, elephant's teeth, potash, gall nuts, nitre and natrium, must be conveyed to the lazaretto.

The purifying of goods on board lasts from ten to twenty-one days, although sometimes subject to modifications from circumstances.

Goods from ships having "Patente nette," may be conveyed to the lazaretto in the ship's boat; but in all other cases the quarantine-boat must be used. It is a rule, from Michaelmas to Easter, that nothing can be conveyed to the shore before seven in the morning, or after three in the afternoon: and from Easter to Michaelmas, nothing can be conveyed before five in the morning, nor after five in the evening; and an exact calculation is made

that no more goods be admitted on land, than can conveniently be received into the lazaretto. This appears to be a very wise and important regulation, as it renders all private communication with the land impossible, and totally prevents smuggling.

We shall now proceed to say a few words on the construction and internal regulations of the lazaretto, or pest-house, itself.

THE LAZARETTO AND ITS INTERNAL REGULATIONS.

THE lazaretto, or pest-house, is situated on an eminence about fifty toises north of the town. It consists of two grand divisions, each of which contains a number of apartments for passengers and goods; the one being for persons actually infected, the other for those only suspected of infection: and the whole, together with the halls, pumps, and grass-plats, are so arranged as to have distinct communications with each distinct ship.

The whole building is surrounded by a wall twenty-five feet high. On the land side it has only one entrance; and on the sea side, a great number. It was built in 1666, but has only been in its present improved state since 1757.

It is under the direction of a superintendent, who has, at his disposal a lieutenant and a certain number of soldiers. The person generally chosen to fill this office is a merchant well versed in the Levant trade; he must be unmarried, or a widower: his salary is very considerable, and he is prohibited from receiving any perquisite, either from captains or passengers; and he must never be absent from his post in the day-time without special leave, and at night, on no account whatever. The lieutenant, who must also have been at the Levant, is subject to the same restrictions as the superintendent, as he is in all cases regarded as his representative. The guard must make their report of every incident every day. The *concierges*, or door-keepers, are selected with the greatest caution, as the nature of their office requires the utmost vigilance and probity.

REGULATIONS FOR THE PASSENGERS.

THE rooms allotted to the passengers contain as little furniture as possible; every fire-place has a double grate before it, and all bedsteads are of iron. The food is prepared for the passengers by a *traiteur*, and conveyed to them by the guards; and with other things they are supplied by a purveyor.

The passengers can have no intercourse with any one, but at a considerable distance: those whose friends are allowed to see

them, have the privilege of going to a grate which is surrounded by a moat, and reaches the top of the building.

Should any one discover the slightest symptom of fever, he is immediately isolated and attended by a physician, accompanied by the superintendent, who waits at the door. Should he stand in need of a surgeon, one is procured, who, for a handsome recompence (made him by the sick person), must attend, and can leave the lazaretto only with his patient. If his disease be alarming, it is carefully kept secret; should he wish to make a will, he must dictate it to a notary, who is placed at the door, and writes it in presence of the superintendent: should he wish to confess, the priest attends him alone, but places himself in the opposite corner of the room, hears his confession, and gives him the absolution, without approaching him. Extreme unction and the viaticum are never administered, and the priest is afterwards obliged to swear that he has not approached or touched the sick person.

Should the patient die, the corpse is drawn from the bed with long ropes, at the ends of which are iron hooks, and conveyed in the night to the place of interment adjoining the building, where it is thrown into the ground with every thing that has been used on the occasion. The room is perfumed, fumigated, and, if necessary, several times white-washed. The bed, and every thing which the room contained, is aired for thirty or forty days.

I shall conclude by just observing, that persons taken from ships actually having the plague on board, are immured in the proper pest-house; there they may be said to be already buried, since no person is allowed to enter their room. Food, medicine, &c. is given them in baskets, fixed to long poles; and the attending surgeon and physician are separated from them by an iron grate. Should the patient recover, he is not permitted to leave his room for twelve weeks: should he die, he is buried as before described; the grave is filled with unslaked lime, and not opened till the expiration of thirty or forty years. All the furniture of his room, and all his effects, are immediately burnt; and the walls chipped off some inches deep; after which they are fumigated, and otherwise cleaned for fourteen days, and then white-washed afresh.—These are the admirable regulations of an institution, which, in times like the present, must be doubly interesting to physicians and statesmen: an institution which may certainly be classed among the most respectable in France, and which may be regarded as a trophy of European culture and philanthropy.

A TOUR
THROUGH THE
ISLAND OF RÜGEN,
IN THE BALTIC,
DURING THE YEAR 1805,
IN A SERIES OF LETTERS.

BY
TEMPORARY INHABITANT.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN.

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PREFACE.

THE island of Rügen, having in latter years attracted the attention and curiosity of strangers, though at no remote period, it was, even in Germany, considered almost as a *terra incognita*, it was natural to suppose, that various accounts would be given of it, each traveller viewing it from a different point, or under a difference of circumstances, by which his mind is biassed. The author of the following pages flatters himself that he will be found to have avoided the errors into which some of his predecessors have fallen, whose descriptions abound in inaccuracies, or are imperfect, especially those by Rellstab, and others. He trusts that the most minute attention to every accessible object worthy of notice, during a stay of several months on the island, and ocular demonstration, or application to the most respectable sources of intelligence,

will afford him that good opinion from his readers, which it has been so much his study to obtain.

Under this idea, he has annexed his strictures on the prevalence of mendicity, shipwrecks, strand-right, and vassalage, the forest department, damage occasioned by the wild stags, &c. &c.

The historical part, which was necessary in order to explain a number of material circumstances here related, is taken from Wackenroder, Schwartz, and Dahnert; and the statistical remarks have been selected from Gadebush and Pachelbel.

The author having thus spoken for himself, the editor thinks it proper to observe, that he has made choice of this tour, in consequence of the interest which is excited by the great political events now happening in the north of Europe. This island, though insignificant in itself, may soon become the theatre of very important transactions.

A TOUR

THROUGH THE

ISLAND OF RÜGEN.

GENERAL SURVEY OF THE ISLAND OF RÜGEN.

I SHALL premise these letters with a concise geographical sketch of the country, together with remarks on its natural history and statistics, from a persuasion, that by such means several passages in them will be easily understood, which otherwise might appear obscure.

As early as Tacitus we find mention made of the Rugians, as forming a family of the aboriginal Germans; and it is probable, that they inhabited the shores of the Baltic: but whether these people gave to the island the name of Rügen, or derived it thence, cannot be easily ascertained. Jordanes, the Goth, commonly called Jornandes, gives some account of the Rugians, and divides them into Ulm-Rügen and Ethel-Rügen. Whatever the annalists may relate of the actions of these people is subject to doubts, one copying the other's words. The name of Rügen first occurs in the writings of authors in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The most ancient northern authors make some mention of Reidgodlandes, bordering on Vintland, or Wendland; and Schwartz renders it highly probable, that by the word Reidgolande, is to be understood Rugenland. Helmold, the monk, who wrote in the twelfth century, describes it as an "*insula, quam incolunt Rani, qui et Rugiani vocantur.*" Saxo Grammaticus, his contemporary, in his account of the Danish-Rugian war, in 1168, generally terms the island Rugia. In the documents of latter times, it occurs under the names of Rugania, Ruye, Ruyen, and Ruyæ; hence the inscription on the seal of the ancient town of Garz. *Sigilliner civitatis Gharz in Ruya*; and to the present day, the term Roijen is often heard in the Low German. In latter documents of government, it is always denominated the sea-girt country of Rügen, or principality of Rügen.

With respect to the situation of this isle in the Baltic, to the north of Germany, I shall just observe, that it extends from north-west to south-east, along the coast of Swedish Pomerania; its greatest distance from which (between Stresow and Griefswald-Wieck), being upwards of fourteen miles over, and its smallest, about one and a quarter.

A single glance at the map will prove the singular figure of the country, which it may probably have owed to violent revolutions in nature; for the annals of Pomerania give an account of a dreadful hurricane which the country experienced about the beginning of the fourteenth century, and which is said to have occasioned numerous inundations and ravages, as well as to have opened the Neue Tief (or, New Deep).

An ancient tradition relates, that the peninsula Mönchgau was once connected with Pomerania, and with the islands in the Rügian Cadden, formed an isthmus. This opinion, respecting the connections of these islands, is rendered still more probable by the sand-banks which, for miles, surround them. In the vicinity of the isle of Rügen are the following twelve smaller isles: Hiddensee, with Neu-Busien; Ummanz, with its four contiguous isles, Freesenort, Urvitz, Laeps, and Wohrenz, or Wühbings; Oche, Lübitz, Pulitz, Vilm, Griefswald-Oche, and the two Stubbers, or Sand banks, namely, the Blind and the Bawenwater-Stubber; which are also called the Small and Large Stubber: the latter is denominated blind, being covered by water; whilst the other appears above the level. These last two, together with the Riden and Dänholm, however, do not appertain to Rügen.

The greatest extent of this isle, i. e. from the north-east shore of the Watten to Palmer Ort, on the Zudar, is upwards of thirty miles in length. Its width is very unequal: from the extremity of Iad in Drigge to Subbenkaumer, it amounts to twenty-six miles; and from the isthmus Alt-Bussien, in Hiddensee, to Thiessow, in Mönchgau, about twenty-three miles.

In consequence of the irregular form of these islands and their numerous creeks, their measurement has been attended with so many difficulties, that at last it was deemed necessary to measure each district and island singly. This took place at the beginning of the eighteenth century, or, more properly, between the years 1692 to 1702; when the surface of Rügen and its contiguous isles, according to Gadebusch, was found to amount to 140,548 acres and 219 perches; to which calculation M. Norst has since added two acres. M. Zollner, however, states it to be at upwards of sixteen German miles, which statement is doubtless the most correct.

GEOGRAPHICAL REMARKS.

NATURE OF THE SOIL.

The whole western district of Rügen is flat, but little elevated above the level of the sea; and consists of a mixture of loam and sand-stone; but the quarter around Gisingst, and the isles of Ummanz and Zudar, have a rich black soil. The eastern part of the isle rises, in several places, far above the level of the sea. The country gradually ascends, in every direction, toward the centre, where it forms the basis of a mountain, on which the town of Bergen is situated; and which exceeds, in height, all the other Rügen mountains, the summits of Granitz and Jasmund excepted. This basis is connected with the Patzig, Jarnitz, and Ralswyck mountains, which branch off singly in a northern direction. Between Cismevitz and Putbus, the elevations are inconsiderable. Monchgut abounds in mountains; but the highest are on Jelmund; particularly the north-east part, which terminates in the promontory of Stubbenlanger. Nor is the northern part of Hiddensee destitute of considerable elevations; while the Arkona rises majestically on the isle of Wittaw.

The plains of the interior chiefly consist of a soil composed of sand and loamy earth, highly favourable to agriculture, though several districts are very sandy; the ground near the seashore, towards the south, is mostly very light. The plains, which are higher up, and extend towards the north and east, are partly sterile, and intersected by marshes and moor-grounds: the most considerable of the latter of which is called the Garwitz, or Garwisch; and extends from Silvitz and Cirkow to Posewald. The low country about Jasmund is mostly loamy, excepting a neck of sand extending along the shore near the ferry: the more elevated part is hard, and very stony. The basis of the Stubnitz consists of lime and chalk, covered by a layer of loam and vegetable mould. It is, however, unusual to suppose, that this survey of the soil is only to be considered generally, for even in the sandy districts, pieces of rich earth may occasionally be found.

Though there are no rivers in Rügen, there is no want of springs and rivulets; the principal of which are the Taubenbach, or Dannebeck, the Chrow, Negas, and Serow rivulets. There is, also, an abundance of smaller streams which spring up at the foot of the sand-hills, which are uncommonly pure and savoury. The mineral springs near Sagard, which had long been neglected, have again been resorted to since the year 1795.

The principal lakes are the Garz Sea, the Red Sea, the Kniepaw Sea, and the Black Sea; which are all in the interior. Nearer to the beach, where they disembody themselves, are the

Ochse, the Rappien and Schmachter Seas ; the last of which is found to contain salt. On Jasmund is the Borg, or Black Sea, in the Stübnitz. Exclusive of these there are several other standing waters in the excavations of the fields, to which the term of *Soll* is generally applied.

I have already observed, that several spots have occasionally been detached and washed away by the floods ; whence a number of bays and creeks have been formed. The largest of these is the Rügian Bodden, or as it is simply called, the Bodden ; it is an extensive basin, situated to the south-east, between Rügen and Pomerania ; it forms several creeks at Mönchgut and Zudar ; and its greatest width is between Stresow and Ludwigsburgh. That part of it which lies between Mönchgut and the island of Rügen, is called the *Wester*, or *Neue Tief* (the Western, or New Deep) ; and the part between this island and Usedom, the *Alte Tief*, or *Old Deep* : both of which are navigated by the larger merchant-vessels. On the west side of the island the sea runs up different parts of the country. Between Hiddensee and the Pomeranian promontory of Barthöft, it passes through a streight, called the *Gellan*, or *Göllen*, into the interior, separates Rügen from Pomerania, forms the creeks of Pribrow and Laudow, together with the Kubitz Lake, divides Ummanz from Rügen, extends itself again between that island and Oche into a bay ; after which it proceeds through the canal near Hiddensee, where it again is converted into a large lake, between the Bug and Wittow ; and finally, thence runs through the Libben, a streight between the Bug and Hiddensee. The passage by way of the Gellen, which was formerly navigable even for ships of considerable burden, is now almost choked with sand, and has only from three to four fathoms in depth. In consequence of this obstruction mechanics are constantly at work in raising the sand ; and loaded vessels passing through the Gellen pay a duty according to their tonnage. It afterwards forms, in a direction from north-west to south-east, a double lake, called the Jasmund Bodden. This double lake is from eleven to twelve miles in length, but so narrow, that it can only be navigated by yachts and schayts ; its greatest depth is estimated at from six to seven fathoms. The smaller Bodden commences from the Jasmund-ferry, runs as far as Prora, surrounds the island of Pulitz, and washes the shores of several smaller spots.

With respect to the climate of this island, it is natural to suppose, from its high northern latitude in Germany, and from its proximity to the sea, that it is severe ; this is particularly felt on the western coast, at Hiddensee and Wittow. In the spring it is much exposed to the bleak and harrowing easterly winds and storms from the west, which are often suddenly succeeded by

hazy weather. Even the summer is unsettled, the weather frequently changing, and the evenings being cool. Sometimes it is very stormy, and seldom or never a perfect calm. A remarkable phenomenon occurs here previous to a storm, announcing the same; namely, the sea, however serene the atmosphere may be, gives an explosion so loud as to resemble distant thunder, which sound is heard throughout the country, especially on the mountains. The appearance of sea-gulls up the country is also considered as a prognostic of storms. The mildest evenings are in August; which month, as well as that of July, in general, compose the hottest season. It is, however, during the early part of autumn that the air is the purest and the weather most constant, where nature seems desirous to make some compensation for the spring; afterwards the west winds begin to rage, and great devastations are occasioned by the hurricanes. Towards the latter part of autumn, the fogs come on again, though even in summer a fog is frequently seen to rise on a sudden from the sea, and which covers the whole island like a thick smoke, after a couple of hours again disappearing. This phenomenon is called *see-daack* by the inhabitants. The winter is mostly severe, and of a long duration, so that the streights and bays are, more or less, covered with ice in April. If in summer, the sea-tide repeatedly rise high, the inhabitants of the coast prognosticate hence a severe winter. But, in other respects, the inhabitants appear to be pretty well enured to their climate.

It may naturally be inferred from the statement respecting the soil, that vegetation must in general be very productive; but a still stronger proof of it may be collected from the variety and exuberance of its vegetation: this is particularly instanced in the prolific culture of the different sorts of grain; so that the island may safely be considered as one of the most fruitful provinces of North Germany. The parts most adapted for agriculture are the whole western part of Rügen, the Zudar, the district of Rappien, Wittaw, and the lower part of Jasmund. Along the coast are a number of rich meadows; the eastern part is woody; and every quarter of the island is greeted by the smiling countenance of vegetable nature. Notwithstanding the cultivated state of the country, and industry of its inhabitants, there are still several heaths; and even Wittaw contains a small portion of uncultivated land on which corn might be raised. A barren heath, consisting of hills and vallies, and occasionally covered with underwood, extends itself to the north behind Bergen as far as Patzig and Ralswyck, along the bay of Jasmund. Independent of this, there are several other barren heaths; for instance, the one situated behind Kluckwitz, in the district of Ging, together with the extensive district between

Gademow and Boldewitz, which is connected on the one side with those of Parchitz, Tessenitz, Lipsitz, and Ramitz; and on the other, partly with those of Müglitz and Maschenholz: this communication is, however, occasionally interrupted by the conversion of some of the best spots into corn land. Thus, in latter years, certain parts of the Boldewitz and Patzig heaths have, by a careful management and copious manure, been rendered capable of producing crops; after which they are suffered to remain fallow for a few years. In the district between Garz and Casnevitz, as well as in a part of Monchgut, and in the mountainous and stony parts of the interior of Jasmund, where the summits are at the utmost covered with underwood, Nature has withheld her bountiful hand from the soil.

The isle of Rügen being destitute of rocks and ore, there are, consequently, very few scarce minerals. Of these, the principal are derived from the sea-shore, viz. yellow amber is found on Hiddensee, and chalk, in abundance, on the coast of Jasmund, in the middle of the peninsula, and at the farther extremity of Wittow. On the isle of Jasmund are two lime-kilns. Along the shore are occasionally found petrifications and other productions of nature; likewise considerable quantities of quartz and granite-blocks, which are frequently of an immense size. The various stones dispersed, partly in heaps and partly singly, about the fields and heaths, and even in the forests; and which, in some spots, scarcely project above the surface, and are, in general, of an extraordinary size, are not less remarkable: they are frequently broken and employed in buildings. M. von Bonstetten, in the second volume of his work above quoted, has described this phenomenon a shower of stones. Among the common minerals produced by almost every soil, are the China-earth on the isle of Hiddensee, which was formerly much in use; farther, clay, particularly potter's-clay, which was converted into bricks and tiles.

There are about 800 different species of wild and cultivated plants, which are indigenons, some of which are of the greatest importance in commerce. I shall first notice the trees and management of the forests.

The island of Rügen does not abound in forest-trees. The anterior part of it along the Gellau is almost destitute of them; Zndar alone contains some woody districts. In the quarter of Gingst there is also a great deficiency of this natural product; for the small wood behind Trent, together with the forests of Pansowitz and Laudon, are too inconsiderable to supply the whole neighbourhood. The most important forest district of the western part of the island, is that which belongs to the Boldewitz estate. Wittow, Hiddensee, Oche, and Ummanz, are

very deficient of wood ; nor are there any regular forests on Minchgut. The inhabitants of these districts are, in consequence, under the necessity of fetching their wood for fuel as well as for private use from distant quarters, and at a great expence ; they would frequently, also, be greatly embarrassed, if nature had not furnished them with turf. The wood commences in the vicinity of Casnevitz, and, in different directions, extends itself partly to Putbus, Lancken, and Cirkow, partly to Ketelshagen, and Greckshagen, on the one side, as far as Kübbelkow, and Reischvitz, and on the other to Prora and Jasmund ; though not in a manner so as to form a continued forest. These woods are frequently intersected by fields, meadows, and habitations ; and in several parts consist of single patches ; or in hills or hillocks, covered with trees. The most considerable forest-land in this review is the Granitz, a mountainous district, belonging to the domain of Putbus ; it consists of upwards of 2000 acres of land, from which the whole isle of Rügen and Minchgut are supplied with wood. Exclusive of these, there are also, in some parts, patches covered with underwood to be met with ; for instance, to the north between Bergen and Ralswyck. In these, as well as in the larger forests, are held, at certain periods, annual auctions, when bushes, as well as single trees, are sold to the highest bidder. The wood to be disposed of is generally divided into small lots, and the purchaser is enabled to ascertain his quantity by the notches or marks indented on the corner logs ; in some instances it is, however, bought by the load.

In the isle of Jasmund is the Stubnitz, a forest, situated on mountains and near the sea-coast, comprising about 3000 acres, adjoining the forests of Spieker and Lancker, and affording a supply of wood to the peninsulas of Jasmund and Wittow, as well as a part of the isle of Rügen.

The larger of these forests consists principally of beech and oak-trees, and the smaller of the ash, oak, elm, hazel, &c. The tough ash thrives uncommonly well in this country, and, on account of its utility, merits a more extensive cultivation than it has met with. A greater degree of attention should also be paid to the silver poplar, called *Arbele*, particularly as its growth prospers so well in a poor sandy soil. But the culture of the willow has proved still more eminently successful, because it is so well adapted for a severe climate and a meagre soil. Hence every species of the willow is met with in all parts of the island, particularly in and near to the villages, where they stand without order and singly, and sometimes forming rows and alleys : they are either suffered to grow up for the purpose of repelling storms, whence they are denominated storm willows ;

in which case they attain a stately appearance, and are chiefly met with along the barns and outhouses as a defence against storms; or they are lopped for the purpose of forming hedges, or serving other domestic purposes. Here and there we find clusters of fir-trees, known in this island by the name of *Tannenkämpe*; but these are the only new plantations of forest-timber, and, on the whole, of no great consequence: at least, I doubt whether they produce timber fit for building, especially as large floats of the fir trunks are frequently imported from the Prussian territory.

On a general view, the management of the forests appears to me far inferior to the state of agriculture in Rügen. Though rangers and foresters are kept in the royal as well as in the private domains, still they appear to be merely inspectors over the forests already existing. Nor do I recollect having heard of any new plantations of forest-timber; but I know, that considerable patches of underwood have been rooted up for the purpose of promoting agriculture; and that from year to year even the larger forests became thinner: this is a lamentable truth, which, at a future period, will be severely felt by posterity. Vide Pachelbels *Beiträgen*, &c. pag. 131, where his remarks are highly applicable to Rügen, and merit serious attention.

The culture of fruit-trees is in a more improved state; and on several estates are raised the choicest species of fruit. In some of the districts of Putbus excellent kernel-fruit is produced. Raspberries and gooseberry bushes grow wild in different woods: there is also a sort of wild currant (*Ribes alpinum*, L.) known here by the name of *schmarten*, or *schmargeln*. Grapes are only grown, *par espalier*, against walls, with a southern aspect; but in some years they thrive uncommonly well.

I now proceed to a consideration of the state of agriculture, which forms one of the principal branches of their subsistence; and is attended to by them not only with assiduity, but also with great judgment. The country produces every sort of grain, especially wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas (white and grey) groats, and buck-wheat; and, in some places, lentils and millet. Of the first five kinds the annual exportation is very considerable. Independently of these, the inhabitants cultivate flax, hemp, tobacco, a certain small quantity of carraway and linseed, and a considerable quantity of potatoes. The culture of flax, however, has not succeeded equally in Rügen as in Pomerania; whether this proceeds from neglect, or whether the climate and soil be unfavourable to its growth, is unknown to me; hence a quantity of this article is annually imported from that province, and a considerable portion disposed of by the Westphalian linen manufacturers. The best flax is produced

in the isle of Ummanz, where particular attention is paid to its culture. In regard to the species of fodder, red and white trefoil are principally cultivated; and latterly, in consequence of the improvements introduced on several estates, letting them lie occasionally fallow; but with respect to the more tender species of trefoil, nothing more than some trials on a small scale has been attempted. Of the management of the soil and the different parts of husbandry, which, in several points, differ from the method practised in Mecklenburg and Pomerania, I shall treat separately.

In regard to the animal kingdom, most of the different species of tame quadrupeds are met with here; and, in fact, the cattle for draught and other domestic purposes, are indispensable to the agriculturist. The genuine native breed of horses, or farmers' horses, are but small, and by no means of a comely appearance; they are mostly of a dark colour; but very well adapted for work, and capable of undergoing great fatigue. On the larger estates the breed has been much improved by crossing with English, Mecklenburgh, and other stallions. The same plan has been adopted with respect to the native horned cattle, by means of foreign bulls: in short, this class of cattle has now attained such a degree of superiority to its former state, particularly by the establishments in the Dutch style, that the oxen are not only numerous in Rügen, but even frequently of a very excellent quality. Pigs are reared in great numbers, partly for sale, partly for domestic economy, and their breed is attended with the greatest success. The sheep are, on the whole, very indifferent, and considerable flocks are kept in those parts which abound with heaths; their wool, however, is very indifferent, and little attention is paid to anchorate the breed, in consequence of the want of wool-manufactories in the island. Of the wild land-animals, the stag, hare, and fox, are the most important. It is probable that, in ancient times, much game may have existed here; for in those days the princes of Rügen were styled "huntsmen of the empire." But at present it is the reverse; wild hogs and deer are not to be found at all; the wolves have long since been exterminated; and the hare is so closely pursued, that in consequence of the small divisions of the soil, where every owner is permitted to hunt and shoot them, they must at last be likewise annihilated; and, independently of this circumstance, the foxes, which are still numerous, eagerly feed on young hares. The stag is not hunted so much, the chase of this animal being farmed.

Of the sea-animals I shall mention the sea-dog, which, in spring and autumn, approaches the shore, and is there either shot or caught in a net. Dolphins are also occasionally taken.

Among the tame birds, the geese merit a particular descrip-

tion, being reared in great numbers, and thriving to an uncommon degree in Pomerania. They are much larger in size than geese are in the south of Germany, where the people are misinformed as to the manner of fattening them here. They are smoked, and frequently exported under the name of *spickgänse*. There are also great quantities of wild fowl on the island, among which are various species of sea fowl, particularly swans, which are often met with here. Much injury is done at the time of sowing in spring by the astonishingly large flights of cranes. This bird has of late greatly increased in numbers; and the peasant spares him from a pious supposition that he brings happiness with him, without considering that he is the destroyer of their thatches and bees; the latter of which he devours, and the breed of which is not very much extended in this island. Crows, ravens, and daws, are perceived in immense flights at certain seasons of the year; and legions of lively sparrows, with their associates, the wrens, carry on their depredations in the fields or farms throughout the year. Of the other wild fowl, which are used for the table, I shall only name the different species of large and small snipes, the fiscal-fare, goose, duck, teal, partridge, quail, &c. &c.

Of the serpent kind, the most frequent are the brown and grey fleckled viper; there are also toads lizards, salamanders, and blind-worms.

Not only the sea-coast, but even the lakes, ponds, &c. abound in fish. The different species amount to from twenty to thirty, among which the trout and mackerel are the scarcest, and the herrings the most useful. The latter are, in particular, caught in considerable quantities, and sold partly fresh, in which case they are immediately consumed, or are salted and smoked. Hence the fisheries form a principal part of the support and the chief employ of many of the inhabitants of the coast. They fish either singly, or in parties; in the latter case they make use of a single large net, which they call “*dat groote goorn*.” In the small lakes and ponds they fish with the rod; and the eel is often speared with an iron instrument resembling Neptune’s trident, fastened to a large stick: this practice is particularly resorted to in winter by spearing them under the ice.

I now come to speak of the division of the isle of Rügen. Nature itself has divided it into the main country, and into the peninsulas and contiguous isle. The largest peninsulas are four in number, viz. Wittow, Jasmund, Mönchgut, and Zudar. The small neighbouring isles have already been noticed.

The Rügian Equestrian Order, which is a part of the states of the country, constitutes a separate district, viz. the Rügian district, which comprises the whole of the country. Hence the ground is, in this respect, divided into four gardens; namely,

that of Berg, Garz, Gingst, and Jasmund-Wittow; and the extent of each garden in general contains the compass of each prevostship: thus, the prevostship of Poseritz constitutes the garden of Garz. To each of these four gardens one of the nobility, possessed of a fief, is appointed a deputy. The present constitution has originated from the ancient princely jurisdictions, of which there once existed nine, and afterwards seven. The words gaid, gord, and grad, are synonymous, of Slavonian origin, and are used to the present moment here in the names of rugard, sagard, putgard, and schwantegord. Gaid originally denoted a place surrounded by strong works, a fence, a division; and hence may have originated the term garden, which seems to be allied.

Respecting the spiritual constitution, Rügen forms a regular synod, consisting of twenty-seven churches, divided into four prevostships, here denominated prepositures, viz. that of Berg, Gingst, Poseritz, and Jasmund-Wittow. The first comprises seven, the second eight, the third eight, and the fourth four parish ministers; of whom two are resident at Wittow, and two at Jasmund. In the latter of these prepositures the senior minister always performs the office of prepositus.

In judicial respects, this island is divided into the bailiwick, embracing all the royal domains, over which a judiciary is appointed, who resides in Bergen, where he presides over the court held there. The district of the nobility contains all the fiefs and some freeholds; the proprietors of which are under the patrimonial jurisdiction. To the Stralsund commissariate, as it is termed, belong all estates and villages which belong to the city of Stralsund itself, as well as some freeholds, the property of the citizens or residents in Stralsund; from which reason the city exercises its jurisdiction over these to the present time. Formerly, according to the number of freeholds, a special judiciary was appointed by the city of Stralsund for the dispensation of justice, who resided on the island, near the old ford.

In a geographical point of view, Rügen contains two towns and two boroughs. The number of estates, villages, &c. amounts to 536, which may be thus classed: 100 large, 150 middling, and 86 small farms, together with 200 villages, Dutch settlements, &c. &c. Of these, 358 are situated on Rügen Proper; 89 on Jasmund; 48 on Wittow; 12 on Zudar; 16 on Ummannz; 9 on Mönchgut; 6 in Hiddensee; 1 on Oche; 1 on Pultz; 1 on Labitz; and 1 on Vilm. Out of all these estates, 80 belong to the royal domains; 382 to the district of the nobility; 71 to the commissariate of Stralsund; 2 to Griefswald; and 1 to the church at Bergen. According to the pre-

positures in which they are situated, there are in Berg, 147 ; in Gingst, 132 ; in Poseritz, 120 ; and in Jasmund-Wittow, 137.

The towns are small, meanly built, and open ; and many of the houses in the market-towns are still covered with straw. The estates are continually undergoing improvements, are now planned with more symmetry and beauty, so that we frequently meet with habitations built with elegance and taste. Before them, and forming a right angle with them, are generally some long barns, or other out-buildings, covered with straw, extending on each side in such a manner that these long side buildings appear almost like two wings of the dwelling ; in consequence of which a considerable space is gained for the court and dung-yard. This style is as general as it is convenient ; and at present the irregularities of a confined style of building are only traced in old or small estates. The seats of several members of the equestrian order are distinguished for their beauty. But there are no castles in the isle of Rugen any more than there are heathen temples, whatever M. Rellstab may assert to the contrary.

The rural dwellings, generally called *kathen*, differ much from each other ; the better sort are built as in Pomerania and Mecklenburgh ; but some have a most wretched appearance, such as the chaumiés composed of turf in Hiddensee. Upon the whole, they all consist of bays, which are filled and plastered up with loamy stones, or with laths, coated with a composition of wet clay and straw ; the walls are afterwards rendered more compact by a coating of wet loam, and are then white-washed. The foundation is now seldom laid with timber, but with stones ; by which the houses gain in strength. In every village we find the roofs covered with straw, and occasionally with reed, which renders them more durable and warm. The roof is rendered more solid by a second layer of straw, and sometimes it is covered with tiles, especially in the roofs of barns. The *kathen* consist either of a separate building, or contain numerous divisions of apartments under the same roof : one of these divisions is called a *Hustel* ; and hence originates the saying, the *kathen* has one, two, three four *Hustels*, &c.

The population may be very nearly ascertained from the registers produced, if they are correct, which the clergy make of the number of their parishioners, as well as those which the burgomasters of the two cities annually transmit to the regency of Stralsund. According to these, the population in Rugen has of late years considerably increased. In the year 1803, the inhabitants amounted to 27,426 in number, of whom 16,733 are vassals.

By comparing this number of inhabitants with the extent of surface above-mentioned, it will be evident, that this island can-

not as yet be reckoned among the very populous parts of Germany, being only 1714 to a geographical square mile. A principal reason for this deficiency arises partly from the destruction of a number of considerable villages, consisting of farms, and their reduction into single farms, or farm-buildings, of the large estates; and partly from the still prevalent vassalage, the pressure of which must naturally be a check to the population.

It is a difficult matter to give an accurate description of the national character, the mode of living, customs and manners, as well as of the progress of religion and politics of a country; and whoever attempts to present a faithful detail of the various relations to each other amongst the different classes of people, has a still more arduous task to encounter, as he is apt to say either too little or too much. In the following remarks I shall endeavour to follow the middle path.

The inhabitants of Rügen, who are partly of German and partly of Vandalic origin, (among whom may probably be some descendents of the aboriginal Raguans) are divided into two classes, namely, free-born and vassals, but separated from each other by very slight boundaries.

Among the former are the nobles, and these possess the greater part of the island, and enjoy numerous prerogatives, privileges, and immunities. This class may be divided, according to the quality of their possessions, into the feudal and allodial nobility. The former form a particular corps, called the Rügen Equestrian Corps, who, like the Pomeranians, have, of late years, the right of wearing a peculiar uniform. This uniform consists of a dark-blue coat, with gold epaulets yellow breeches, and a sabre, with a gold tassel. Many of these noble families are of very ancient extraction, and their names are mentioned in the earliest annals of the country; but, by intermarriages, they are all now so closely united as to form one family. They are the descendents of the Saxon nobles, who, in the twelfth century, settled here under the princes of Rügen, by whom they were invited, and presented with estates and land as fief. Several families of these noble colonists have become extinct, and of latter years their estates have passed into the hands of others, either by purchase or by inheritance. On the whole, the nobility are rich, though not to that degree as they are in other countries. Ancient customs are not to be sought for in the higher classes, where a certain etiquette has polished off the ancient impression; and thus we find the manners and mode of life of the fine world copied by the nobility of Rügen. Here, as every where else, luxury keeps an equal pace with refinement; and, consequently, new fashions succeed each

other in their clothes, equipages, decorations of their apartments, furniture, &c. and in some houses the most elegant refinement prevails.

The nobles here have been accused of possessing an excess of family pride, and single instances may be brought forward to prove that they are apt to display to the other orders the superiority which they derive from the feudal system; but most of them are more humane than the German nobility in many parts of the continent; and among them are some who are eminent for their great qualities. Most of the young nobles now enter either the Swedish, or still more frequently the Prussian service, or apply themselves to agriculture.

The clergy have likewise to boast of enjoying numerous immunities and privileges. They are solely under the jurisdiction of the royal consistory, and are exempt from all civil burdens and taxes to government. Ten vicarages, viz. at Attenfähr, Altenkirche, Casnevitz, Gingst, Neuenkirche, Patzig, Parseritz, Rappien, Sagard, and Trent, have authority not only over the vassals, but also over the free people residing amongst them; and justice is distributed in the ecclesiastical or pastoral courts. But the supreme power in ecclesiastical affairs is vested in the king, who has confided the trust to the superintendant-general, to whom the deacons and vicars have to apply in matters relating to the church and synod. The four prepositi, whose duty it is to attend to the direction and inspection of the four vicars of their diocese, and of whom the Rügian clergy at Bergen, are the head, are appointed by the king, who also nominates the deacon at Bergen; the remaining deacons being determined by the prepositi.

The right of appointing vicars may with propriety be divided into grants of the king and of the nobility. The king is patron of sixteen vicarages, viz. three in the prepositure of Bergen, six in Gingst, five in Poseritz, and two in Jasmund-Wittow. The others are dependant on some of the nobility possessing estates here: the vicar of Ummantz alone excepted, who is under the patronage of the city of Stralsund; in the same manner the whole island also belongs to Holy Ghost Convent, in that city. In filling up vacancies, men, who are already in office, for instance, the military chaplain at Stralsund, are justly preferred for the purpose; and hence M. Zöllner has erroneously asserted, that the new vicar is expected to marry the widow or orphan daughter of his predecessor. To prove the contrary, I could easily name several ministers, were I not apprehensive of offending the modesty of several gentlemen, under whose roof I have enjoyed the kindest hospitality. If a clergyman die and leave a widow, she continues to receive the income of the liv-

ing during the term of one year; whence such period is termed the year of grace; after which she is entitled to a certain income and free apartments in the alms-house for life; and where there is no building of the kind, in such case a certain sum for rent is annually paid. These regulations are the more necessary, as there exists no fund for the widows of the clergy in this island. During the vacation, or year of grace, the clergy of the prebendary to which the deceased belonged, are bound to preach alternately in the orphan church, and perform the other sacred duties.

Most of the vicarages are very productive. The vicar has a farm of his own, to which a considerable portion of land for agriculture is frequently attached; and if the possessor be well versed in husbandry, his situation is attended with great advantages. A vicarage of this kind is called *Wiedemen, Wielem*, or, according to the language of the common people, *Wieden*, which denotes *Weilthum*, or sacred property. The possessor is entitled to an unrestricted enjoyment of all appurtenances for life, but is, at the same time, bound to keep the buildings in a state of repair and habitable, for which purpose he receives from his parishioners, tythes of geese, and lambs. Independent of these and the customary salary, the clergy are allowed tythes of grain, which is delivered partly in sheafs, and partly ready threshed; by some, however, an equivalent is given in money in lieu of the corn in kind. If the church is poor, and requires repairs, the parishioners must defray the expences by contributions called a church-rate, and the amounts are settled in the house of the vicar, in presence of the patron and parishioners.

The clergy are some of the most accomplished men in Rügen; and several have eminently distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. They are refined in their manners, and hospitable to a high degree. Tolerant in articles of creed, they utter no anathema against such as differ from them in opinion, and thus, equally remote from the orthodoxy and infidelity of the present day, they form a truly amiable body.

The class of burghers chiefly consists of the inhabitants of the towns and hamlets, of landholders and farmers, sea-faring men, and tradesmen residing in the country. Among the tradesmen are reckoned the millers, who are a respectable community, there being upwards of eighty mills on the island: they have a chief, (this corporation and his deputy, the latter of whom, at the quarter sessions (two of which are annually held at Bergen) settles all petty disputes, and signs the indentures of apprentices, &c. No vassal can be articleed as an apprentice to any trade. Great part, and probably, most of the class of citizens, are of a foreign origin; and others have purchased their freedom from

vassallage. Of this order, I can only add, that people in good circumstances and of a good education, in general, live here as in other parts, and that the poor are thrown into the back-ground.

The vassals (*homines glebe adscripti*) are the most numerous of the inhabitants, the proportion to the freemen being, as two and three to one. Nature and soil afford a milder lot to this class, in which the last remains of the ancient Vandals may be traced, than the one which fate cast them: for, that their situation cannot prove enviable, is generally admitted.

They may be divided according to the quality of the estates, whose property they are, into subjects of the domains, or, as they are also called subjects of the crown, of fiefholdings, freeholds, the church, and of the towns; or, according to their possessions, and nature of their servitude, into full peasants, half-peasants, Kossates, or Kätner, and inmates. Many of them are also employed as overseers, viz. as husbandmen, gardeners, husbandmen, herdsmen and shepherds, ferrymen, sailors, &c. or act on the estates in the capacity of male and female domestics. The peasants belonging to the domains or fiefholdings, are mostly attached to rented farms, but of the peasants belonging to equestrian and allodial domains, very few are thus disposed of. The full and half peasant is bound to perform the customary work with horses, and manual labour on the estate, for which he has the possession and enjoyment of his farm, together with about thirty acres of land. The Kossates and domestics work a certain number of days in the week for their owners. For those who were remiss in their duty or refractory, there formerly existed a particular mode of punishment called *gantenstrafe*, corresponding with that of the pillory in England; with this exception, that the hands of the offender were not confined: in this situation he was publicly exposed for the space of an hour; but latterly this punishment has been abolished. The other relations of the subject, his situation, privileges, need, &c. are ably treated of by M. Annot, in his recent publication of the “History of Vassallage, in Pomerania and Rügen.” to which book I refer the reader for farther information.

If a vassal belonging to a nobleman in town wishes to purchase his liberty, the ransom depends entirely on the will of his superior; but in the domainium a certain sum is fixed, man or woman; and a small charge is made for the filling up of the discharge.

I shall conclude the remarks on this head, by presenting a short general characterise of the peasants of this island. The rustics, on the whole, are tall, robust, rendered hardy by their climate and manner of living, athletic, but rarely of a comely form, and mostly have thin legs, in consequence of their hard

labour. The physiognomy of the men is often very striking; and among the women I perceive but few fine faces and forms. All wear the hair cut short, and some have a curved brass comb in their hair, but no particular dress; the peasants of Möuchgut and Ummantz excepted. They speak low German, which contains a number of peculiar words and phrases, and pronounce it but slowly; they, in general also, have a propensity to tardiness; this, however, is rather a natural consequence of the climate. Most of them are, notwithstanding, industrious and laborious; they weave and knit for themselves; many even display great mechanical genius; and the labouring rustic in Rügen, daily performs, at least, twice as much labour as a peasant in Saxony; at the same time, he requires twice the quantity of food, and, unfortunately, the use of spirituous liquors has become very prevalent among this class. They are also very fond of smoking tobacco, and many of them chew it in imitation of sea-faring people. Their understanding is much shackled: they obstinately adhere to the prejudices, tenets, and customs of their ancestors; and in matters relating to agriculture and many other subjects, they will still retain a degree of superstition far beyond that which prevails on the neighbouring continent: nor is their confidence in sympathetic miraculous cures of man and cattle, in the least diminished. And, indeed, how can it be expected otherwise? Their education is neglected in their youth, and checked either by poverty, or early and laborious work. There are also but few and indifferent schools; hence they never read any useful book for information, and but a small number of them are able to write. Notwithstanding these defects, heinous crimes are rarely committed here; murder is scarcely ever heard of, and great robberies are seldom committed; but petty thefts and frauds are frequently practised in respect to the property of their masters. They are secretly very interested for their private advantage, but mostly indifferent as to the benefit of their masters. Craft, ingratitude, indolence, and indifference in the exercise of their duty, are laid to their charge; and hence the adage in low German, “the rustic is naturally a rogne.” Should this reproach prove to be founded, still it will, in my opinion, admit an excuse. For the pressure of servitude renders the mind cowardous and bad; that is, where no sensation of liberty animates man, and no conviction of his own importance elevates his soul, that man must become mean, because he is destitute of every thing that can lighten the fatigues of life, of every means that can cheer and elevate him above his fate.—Here I pause.—

I shall conclude these preliminary observations, with an account of some public institutions in the island of Rügen.

An Assurance Society against Fire, was established in the year

1769: it extends throughout the island, so that every proprietor of an estate may partake of its benefit. Since the year 1800, the two towns, and the market-places Gingst and Sagard (which were formerly, excluded from the advantages of this establishment) have been admitted. In the year 1803, the value of the houses registered amounted to 1,537,448 rix-dollars. The following is the object of this association, to which are appointed three directors; namely, one from the dominium, one from the equestrian order, and one from the Stralsund commissariate; and four commissaries nominated by the four gardens of the country. If an edifice assured is destroyed by fire, in such cases, three quarters of the estimated value are paid out to the sufferer; to which sum the other members are bound to contribute a share in proportion to the sum at which their own built houses are registered in the accounts. The money is delivered to the secretary of the society at Bergen.

A certain traveller is reported by M. Zöllner to have asserted, that there are no roads at all in the island of Rügen: this charge is not only harsh, but unjust. Though there are no gravelled roads or chaussees, still the roads are in general dry and level in summer, and even in spring and autumn, are less heavy in many parts of Pomerania, the ground here being sandy. Much attention is paid to their improvement; for which purpose a road surveyor is employed, who punishes every neglect in that department. The principal high road leading towards towns and market-places, are nearly all so broad, that the traveller may pass them without any hindrance and inconvenience, with the broadest carriage. The numerous roads for communication and bye-roads, running towards the villages and estates, are certainly narrower; and the most limited and worst are the hollow ways and passages through woods, as in the Stubnitz and Granitz. These defects, however, cannot be remedied; in fact, this very circumstance was adverted to by the government some years ago, when a new regulation was made respecting the general introduction of a greater width of the carriages; but Rügen could not partake of this advantage, because nature itself opposes such a regulation.

Formerly there were three main roads on the island. The first came from the large vitte at Wittow, and passed through Alte-kirche, Wieck, on the other side of the ferry, through Tient, Ganskevitz, Gingst, Rambien, towards the old ferry. The second also proceeded from the vitte of Wittow, through the Schabe, to Ruschvitz, Bobbien, through Sagard, Wostvitz, across the small Jasmund-heath, to Zarnaz, Carows, and to Rambien, &c. The third ran from Thiessow-farm, through Münchegudt, to Lanken, and through Carnevitz, to Rodenkirch-hill, where the three met;

and which, in general, still remain the same. The post-road, which is the broadest, now runs from the old ferry to Bergen.

There is only one post-office in Rügen, namely at Bergen, from which place the post departs twice a week, namely on Monday and Friday mornings, to Stralsund, and returns every Tuesday and Saturday afternoon. With these posts are connected the messengers on foot from Jasmund and Wittow; the former of whom sets out for Bergen twice a week, and the latter once. The Gingst messenger proceeds twice a week to Bergen, &c. There is no messenger from Bergen to Garz; but one goes to Stralsund. By these messengers, letters are conveyed from town to town. Travellers may be accommodated with carriages at a moderate charge in every place.

Exclusive of these regulations by land, the traveller may also proceed by water to Stralsund, Greifswald, &c. and, by this mode of conveyance in small vessels, dispatch letters and packages from any part of Rügen, to the places above-mentioned. These vessels, or schuytes, mostly set out from Ralswyck, Kubitz, Schapode, Putbus or Neuendorf, Wieck and Breeg; farther from Hiddensee, Ummanz, and Mönchgut to Pomerania. Large ships of burthen are not built in this island, because it carries on no immediate maritime commerce with other countries, nor do foreign ships land here, though they are sometimes wrecked on the coast of this island. This induces me to notice in this part the regulations made in cases of shipwrecks.

The beach towards the open sea (called the great strand, to distinguish it from that of the bays and creeks) is chiefly shallow and sandy, and, with certain winds, exposed to a tremendous surf. In addition to this, the strong currents of the Baltic, (which is but small when compared to other seas) allow the navigator no sea-room in storms, which often rage with great fury in spring and autumn: for, in whatever direction he is sailing, he may, with a moderate wind, reach either shore every twelve hours. Hence, scarcely any year elapses without some shipwrecks on the coast of Hiddensee, Wittows, Jasmund, or Mönchgut, though sometimes they wittely run aground, when the ship and cargo are assured to a great amount.

In the most ancient times, a number of regulations have been issued for assisting the distressed crew, and preservation of the cargo. As soon as a ship hoists out a signal of distress, the inhabitants near the coast are to hasten to her assistance, and endeavour first to save the people on board, and their ship's materials and cargo. Whoever arrives first is entitled to the preference of salvage; but if any inhabitants belonging to the same jurisdiction in which the ship is wrecked, should arrive at the same time with strangers, in such case, the former have the pre-

ference; but no person is, under a heavy penalty, allowed to enforce his service, if the crew are alone able to save. The salvage is settled according to the Swedish sea-laws. If the articles saved are worth sixty rix-dollars, or less, the half is deducted for salvage; if it exceeds the sum above-mentioned, and amounts to 240 rix-dollars, then the fourth part is deducted for salvage. And if, notwithstanding, the value of the goods saved be greater than the sum above-mentioned, still no more than sixty rix-dollars are allowed, unless the exertions and danger were extraordinary. On the whole, equity is strongly recommended. The goods saved, must be taken care of by the magistrates, and lord of the manor, in whose jurisdiction the ship is wrecked; and for a moderate recompense, be brought to their own territory, after which, they are immediately to give information to the “Royal Licent-Contours for shipwrecks.” Of late years a public authorised commissary has been appointed, whose duty it is to see, that in saving the goods, as well as in the public sale by auction of the cargo and ship’s materials, (at which a sworn notary public takes down all the particulars in writing), every attention is paid to equity and justice. This regulation has taken place in consequence of certain abuses that were formerly stated to have taken place; whence several of those odious tales of the refusal of the peasants and fishermen to save the unfortunate crew, and all those stories of profligacy on these occasions; of their outrageous robberies and frauds, may possibly have some foundation. At least it is reported, that the inhabitants of the coast rejoice when a ship runs aground, because then they are sure to get something by it, and that they interpret the prayer of their clergy: “Heavens preserve the wreck,” in the following manner: “the Lord grant plenty of shipwrecks.” I had, however, to the honour of these people, rather believe the latter explanation to be calumny: for I know that the inhabitants of Wittow in particular, have, of late years, proved themselves not only most undaunted, but disinterested, and have frequently encountered the most tremendous hurricanes to preserve the lives of their brethren.

LETTER I.

GINGST, July 26th, 1806

AT last I am here! Thus I see my dream realised, and my foot rests once more on this island, after an absence of twelve years. You will still recollect, with what enthusiasm I related to you whatever I could recollect of this *ultima Thule*, at the most northern point in Germany, respecting which a very accomplished lady once seriously asked me, if the language of the country was the Swedish, and if Rügen belonged to Germany?

I now hasten to give you, the details respecting this island, in the adventures of your friend here. In order to accompany me in my excursions, I must request you to take to hand the map of Swedish Pomerania, and Rügen, delineated by professor Mayer, and engraved by Lotter, in Augsburg. I doubt whether you will be able to procure the one by professor Labin, first published in Holland, in twelve sheets, in 1618, and afterwards reprinted at Hamburgh, without any alteration, as it is very rarely met with even in the island.

At present I am at Gungst, where I am happily enjoying the most generous hospitality.

As soon as I had arranged my affairs at Stralsund, and confided my trunk to the care of the postillion of Bergen, I hastened to the old ferry, in order to proceed in a row-boat to Rügen; but the wind proving boisterous, the ferryman refused to hazard the passage. But in the harbour I learned, that a passage-boat belonging to Gahl, was just on the point of sailing. Of this opportunity I immediately availed myself, and joined the other passengers: my luggage was taken on board, the wind swelled the sails, and we boldly flew past Dänholm, a small island to the west, distinguished by its elevated shore. Numerous redoubts are met with in this island, owing to the wars in former times. According to tradition, the strait between Dänholm, which was once called Strela, and the coast of Pomerania, is reported to have been so narrow, in days of yore, that a bridge was thrown across from one shore to the other. In less than half an hour we passed through the gut, which is here about two miles and a half in width, and the beach of the island was now before us.

The ferry at Gahl, if you direct the eye towards Rügen, is situated to the right of the old ferry, and consists only of a few houses which belong to the church of St. Mary, at Stralsund. Near the beach here, is excellent spring-water, which many of the inhabitants of Stralsund use in summer for drinking, when their own water becomes bad. The ferry-boat at Gahl must carry sails, but is not permitted to use row-boats; while at the old ferry, only row-boats; but no vessels with sails can be employed. Independent of these two ferries just mentioned, are several others from Pomerania to Rügen: at Drigge, a small peninsula, which I perceived to the left of Gahl, the new ferry; that at Goldberg, which is opposite to the splendid estate called Niederhof, on the coast of Pomerania; and finally, the one at Glewitz, the last of which is the most resorted to. All the others are insignificant, and travellers will seldom have any occasion to repair thither for a passage. From Gahl, I then proceeded in company of a guide, who carried my little luggage to the old ferry, where I arrived in half an hour. The way thither led

along the shore, which at first is level; but gradually becomes more elevated: it consists of a yellow clay, strongly intermixed with sand; and at the village where the ferry is, its elevation is upwards of twenty feet above the sea. Here I easily procured a carriage, and proceeded to the interior.

About two miles from the ferry, is the village of Rambien. In the front of some of the houses belonging to the village, I perceived a number of young beauties (*Cytisus Laburnum* Linn.) which seem here to be rare. A fine grove of fir trees extends from the inn here to the left along the road, at the end of which is an hospital called the Convent of St. Jürgen. This building is inhabited by old people who, on payment of a certain sum, are admitted, and receive a certain monthly income, and some provisions in kind. The establishment was formed in the fourteenth century, and belongs to the city of Stralsund. It was first founded by a man named Gädcke von Wicked. At present the admission-money is 200 rix-dollars; for which each resident is entitled to a habitation and piece of garden for life, and to thirty-two shillings Swedish per month. Close to the road is an old chapel, where the vicar of Rambien is said sometimes to perform the service; it also contains an apartment for conference: the windows were barricaded, and the branches of a vine ran up the wall on an espalier. At the back of this edifice are the dwellings of the Pröwens, as they are called. The whole is inclosed by palisades. This charitable establishment possesses several villages and farms on the island, together with the fir-grove before alluded to.

The best view of this sacellum is from a gentle ascent near Rothenkirche, a village belonging to the convent, where it appears to be before the grove, the dark green of which forms a charming contrast with the light colour of the building. Here the road branches off in two directions. Towards the right is the principal road leading to Bergen, which faintly appears at this distance; and to the left, through the village to Gungst. On my right hand, I distinguished the Gättemitzer bills, as they are termed, of which I counted nine. Wakenroder, an ancient native author, observes, that possibly a considerable number of pagan urns might be discovered here, which conjecture has since been verified, several having, in modern times, been dug out and examined.

A little farther on, a pleasing sea-view presents itself. Here the sea forms a bay, along which are scattered farms and villages; in the back-ground before me, was the Landow church, with its steeple; and to the left the bay was bordered by the Pomeranian cape of Borhöft, which rises at a distance, otherwise the surrounding country is quite level. If one may judge of the soi

by the crops, this must certainly be very good. The ground is lower on the left towards the coast, which is only at a short distance. Behind the farm called Dramundorf, is a considerable plain, which is used as a salt ley. Near Neuendorf we continued to approach the sea-coast, and at last, passed through a tolerably large bay, called the Priebrä Wedde. The sea runs a little farther up the country, and joins the bay of Serow, or Negast, which is reported to arise from the Kniepow Sea.

Shortly after I perceived a second bay, similar in circumference and width to the one through which I had just passed, but superior to it in a perspective point of view. Contiguous to it is the small village of Landow; and to the left, behind a semicircle of trees, is an estate called Ralow, celebrated in the earliest history of the country. The ancient Ralow was a castle belonging to Ralunk, or Rolvink, a Vandalic pirate, and was destroyed by Jaromar I. prince of Rügen. A century ago the remains of the walls were still visible.

After passing through Landow, one of the smallest parishes in Rügen, we again had to ride through a bay at the back of the village, which is called Landow Wedde. As the word *wedde* occurs so frequently, I give you its interpretation along with it: *wedde* signifies a bay, or a part where the sea runs a considerable way up the country, or is so shallow, that you may ride through it on horseback, as well as in a carriage. It might, perhaps, be also derived from the ancient German verb *weaden*, because such place is fordable.

In the middle of this bay, where the current is reported to be very strong, are driven into the ground two rows of piles, to serve as directing posts to the carriages passing through it. Though this contrivance is very laudable, and highly useful to strangers, especially at night-time, still it is unsafe, as those posts must frequently be carried away in storms, by the increased violence with which the sea rushes into such creeks, as well as by the drifted ice in winter, in which case the driver is obliged to take his chance. On the whole, a passage through these two creeks appears to me to be attended with too much danger to be undertaken by such as are unacquainted with its nature, especially when the swell rises, occasioned by a north-west wind. But independent of this circumstance, there is another point to be considered, namely, the penetration of the water into the carriage when the tide rises, by which the luggage is wetted. The passenger on foot fares still worse: though there is a small wooden bridge near Landow, where the *wedde* becomes narrower, how easily may this be washed away by a swell! At the Pribrow Wedde it is still worse. There are a few dwellings near the brink, the owners of which have a boat to convey passengers

across ; but it sometimes happens, that the meadows adjoining the wedde are entirely inundated, so that the traveller is then obliged to wade to the spot where the boat is kept : should the people be absent, he must then wait till a carriage comes, with which he may gain a passage across. To obviate these inconveniences, it were to be wished that two solid bridges, able to resist the violence of the water, might be thrown over, in particular as the Gingst road is much frequented, unless local hinderances render their execution impracticable.

The country between Landow and Gingst, a distance of a league, consists of level ground ; in the same manner as the whole western coast of the island, which is very little elevated above the sea. On all sides you perceive well cultivated fields, and a number of estates and villages, through several of which I passed previous to my entry into Gingst.

As it was too dark when I arrived at this place, to take a view of it, I resigned myself to the enjoyment of social comforts ; and indeed I cannot sufficiently describe, how every one endeavoured to entertain the strange visitor. The daughters of the provost, in whose house I was, proved themselves to be very accomplished ladies ; and being all musical, they shortened the time by singing and playing alternately on the piano-forte and harp, till supper invited us from one banquet to another. After supper, the father, who was a native of Prussia, related to me some very remarkable incidents of his life, when he was a youth ; and an occasional admixture of several interesting and witty anecdotes, added to the charms of the conversation.

My first walk, the next morning, was taken in company of the provost and his son, a worthy young gentleman, who assists his father as deacon. The exterior of the church certainly does not promise what a view of the interior displays : simplicity is here united with elegance ; and you will rarely find a country church equally distinguished for light, cleanliness, and symmetry, as this is : which, however, is reported to be the most elegant in the country. Two of the more particular ornaments are, the altar, decorated with a painting of the Ascension of Christ, by Rode, the late Berlin artist ; the other is the organ, built a few years ago, by Kindt, of Stralsund.

Among other property of the church, is a cup of exquisite workmanship, taken by an officer belonging to one of the noble families here, out of a convent in one of the wars, and presented to this church. A sheaf-barn, which is a small building contiguous to the church, and if we may judge from the name, was probably destined either to keep the tythe-corn in, or served as a vestry, has been fitted up as a school-room, in which the children of the place and its vicinity are instructed during the summer.

I now rambled through the place, which contains nothing farther remarkable, and has only the appearance of a large village. It is situated on an extensive plain, consists of rather more than a hundred houses, and is between ten and eleven miles distant from the Old Ferry. Some of the streets are defended by a paltry bank ; and the houses are small, and covered with straw, three or four excepted, among which is the parsonage. The last, with its outhouses and garden, resembles a well-arranged country-seat, and the appearance of its exterior attests a spirit of regularity in its possessor. The grass-plat before the house, the lofty linden-trees which afford it shade, and whose fragrance hail it on all sides, the number of fruit-trees in the garden, the abundance of its vegetables for the kitchen, the high palisades aside it, with the neat bower near the pond, and the red railing by which it is surrounded ; all combine to produce an emblem of useful activity, domestic affluence, hilarity, and rural peace. And indeed, this picture corresponds with the interior of the house. Here you find convenience and cleanliness, neatness without pomp, taste without affectation, order without pedantic restraint—all is harmony : in short, were I a minister, the possession of such a parsonage would undoubtedly form one of my most prominent wishes. The provostship of Gingst is reckoned to be one of the most productive preferments ; for, exclusive of the advantages above-mentioned, there is attached to it a considerable portion of fertile land for agriculture, together with pasturage, and a piece of moor to dig turf, situated at the north-east side of the market-place. There are also several very fine seats belonging to the nobility, and various villages in this parish, amounting in the whole to forty in number. In short, this parish is the most populous in the country ; and under the provost are eight clergymen.

The market-town, called Gingst, or Gynxst, as it is styled in ancient documents, has 540 inhabitants. These people were formerly serfs to the lordship and provostship, and some of them were bound to perform vassalage on the neighbouring demesne of Gagern ; but several years ago they were exempted from this duty by the provost, as well as by the royal bailiwick, so that both have retained merely the jurisdiction over them. The high road which runs through the market-place, forms the boundary between the inhabitants belonging to the bailiwick, and those belonging to the provostship, the latter of which contains a far greater number of houses. This verifies the old adage, “ that comfort may be enjoyed even under a yoke ; ” but since the abolition of vassalage, opulence has certainly increased. Four deputies are appointed by the bailiwick and provostship, for the arrangement of petty matters : in which the interest of the place may be involved, to superintend the jurisdiction, &c.

When the inhabitants received their liberty, they, at the same time, thought themselves entitled to certain fields and other pieces of ground, which belong partly to the neighbouring estates, and partly to the provostship. This conceit, which has since proved a fruitful source of dispute, still continues to prevail in the minds of their posterity, who are always renewing those claims, and from year to year are in search of their asserted *El-Dorado*, though without finding it: for many of the inhabitants subsist entirely by agriculture. Notwithstanding the latter circumstance, the most common mechanics are found here, some of whom have formed themselves into guilds. Thus, by the patriotic exertions of the provost to increase the prosperity of the place, a body of weavers has been established, which already comprises seven masters. Some of these, particularly the damask-weavers, as they are termed, are in great repute, as ingenious workmen, throughout the island, and even in Pomerania; but are reported to be rather exorbitant in their charges for their labour. They manufacture the finest damask table-cloths, for which they are generally supplied with the yarn; and no pattern is to them too difficult to imitate: these table-cloths, however, cannot be manufactured of the same size as they are made in Saxony and Westphalia; but this is owing more to the smallness of the work-shops, in which two or three looms are close to each other, than to any inability of the workmen. In the afternoon, I and part of the family visited one of these manufactories, when a more accurate inspection of the loom and its mechanism, afforded me great pleasure.

My next excursion was to the Mühlenberg, at the west end of the place, which commands a perfect view of the surrounding country. It presents a continued tract of corn-fields bearing most exuberant crops. Clusters of estates and villages are every where dispersed; which, added to the neighbouring creeks, enliven the scene. At the verge of the horizon are perceived the towns Stralsund and Bergen, and particularly Jasmund and the island Hiddensee. This variety, however, is destitute of one of the principal charms in a landscape, which is wood, a defect which prevails throughout the whole district of Gingst: for the patch of firs at Rattulwitz is too inconsiderable, and the Pansewitz wood too remote. In consequence of the great fertility of this district, the epithet of Paradise has been not unjustly applied to it by Zöllner and others; the former of whom has erroneously asserted, that the country about Gingst, by way of preference, merits the name. Nor is he correct in his remarks on the attention paid by the owners to their grounds near the roads, and to those at a greater distance; as, from what I have been able to observe, his care is equally directed to all. Lastly, I inspected a Dutch mill, built only a few years ago, at the north part of the place. Its sails recalled to my memory

the mills belonging to the salt-works near Greifswald; at the same time it occurred to me that, according to some records, a salt-work is said to have once existed near Gingst, of which, however, no vestige is left.

On the third day of my stay here, a small company met at the parsonage, in order to set out thence on a rural excursion. My intention was originally to employ the mean time in a visit to the adjoining island of Ummanz; but, being assured by all present, that it contained nothing very remarkable, I joined the party in a walk to the Wall.

We passed through Venz, which has been, for several centuries, in the possession of the noble family of Platen, and the Gothic style of which proves it once to have been the seat of a knight. At a short distance from it, we perceived the wall, which was the object of our walk: it forms part of the estate of Teschvitz, near Gingst, from which it is about four miles distant. Here an ancient wall of earth is actually seen, which, on its top, and in different parts of both its sides, is overgrown with lofty ash-trees, oaks, hazel, and other underwood, which add to its majestic rise. The most elevated side is to the north, in which are incontestible traces of an entrance: a little farther towards the south, the side is again perforated by an aperture leading to the foot of the wall, which also bears the appearance of an entrance. The west side is the lowest, and appears to have been dismantled: here the wall gradually loses itself in a low bog covered with bushes. The prospect from the top, through the green envelopement, is delightful: here a broad foot-path is cut through the green bushes, and in some appropriate places benches are placed. Still unsatisfied, I hastened with some young men farther, in order to traverse the whole square, which is of a considerable extent, but of no very regular form; and is situated in a wide plain. I could not, however, discover any vestiges of a moat around it. The appearance of the whole was the more striking, as no mention had before been made to me of it; and I never could have expected to find here a spot so charming, and at the same time, not less remarkable as a monument of antiquity.

Of the former destination of this ancient work, nothing is known: but in all probability, there existed here, at the time of the Vandals, or even earlier, a castle belonging to robbers; for tradition relates, that a creek once ran to the foot of the wall, so that small craft could approach it. Nor is this improbable, if we consider the extreme shallowness of the marsh on the west side; and add to it the circumstance, that a creek runs from the sea at a short distance hence. Thus this wall may once have been a *wikingar*, as it was usually called, or den of thieves, if the tradition be founded on truth.

The interior space of the rampart was, if I am not mistaken, converted into a corn-field; and, in short, several fields and meadows belong to this wall. Formerly a farm is said to have been established here. A charming summer-house has been built here by the present proprietor, at the back part of the wall, in which we took tea and other refreshment. Thus favoured by the most charming weather, and animated by the spirit of mirth, the company indulged in the happiest enjoyments, till the evening warned us to return.

Shortly after I proceeded to Bergen, the capital of the country, where I took up my residence in the town-house, which affords the same accommodation as an inn; and have already made several little excursions about the town.

Bergen is about five miles from Gîngst: the soil is level throughout, and fertile; on every side the eye is greeted with the prospect of smiling corn-fields, and land covered with trefoil, of farms, villages, thickets, and a number of mounds behind the ancient estate of Pansewitz. On the road between Bergen and Gîngst, is the estate of the late M. de O. which, in certain respects, is highly interesting to me. This gentleman having brought hither a young man from Berlin, in whom he had accidentally discovered great talents for painting, the latter soon fulfilled the expectations of his liberal Mécenas, who continued to encourage the rising talent of the young artist, and retained him in his house for nearly two years. You will be surprised when I inform you, that this was Philip Hackert, who afterwards signalized himself so greatly, and ranks with the most celebrated landscape-painters: hence, the island of Rügen may justly boast of having, by its rural charms, unfolded his genius for painting, and initiated him in the first rudiments of the art.

Hackert has engraved several views in Rügen, among which is one of the town of Bergen, from Boldewitz. In a saloon of the house of Boldewitz, is an oil-painting of the celebrated Stubenhammer, but which he never finished.

From the windmill near Boldewitz, the country is one continued barren heath to Gademow: beyond this village, we again meet with traces of fertility, which extend to the ascent on which Bergen is situated.

LETTER II.

ACCOUNT OF THE ISLE OF OEHE.—SALINE MEADOWS.—
 TRADITION RESPECTING THE SEPARATION OF THE
 ISLAND FROM THE CONTINENT.—ORIGIN OF THE BEA-
 CON-HILL.—ACCOUNT OF HIDDENSEE.—THE CONVENT.
 —NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.—STATE OF VASSALAGE.—
 CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.—TEMPLE AND IDOL.

LANKENSBURG IN WITROW, *August 4.*

AS I was about to depart for Wittow, and thence for Hiddensee, I met with a pleasant companion, who persuaded me to proceed with him for the small isle of Oehe, whence I might easily obtain a conveyance to Hiddensee; to which I readily agreed. The road runs straight through Trent to Wittow. The ground is, on the whole, in an excellent state of cultivation, and produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, and peas: the land is level, and far and near, the eye is cheered with the sight of human dwellings. A short distance before Trent, however, we crossed a dull heath, on which was a solitary windmill. The village of Schaprode is situated close to the water-side, and is tolerably well built: it is inhabited by a number of free people, among whom are several opulent sea-faring men, who find no pleasure in the restraint of towns. The naturally dull appearance of the coast is much relieved by the continual passing and re-passing of the small craft. Schaprode trades with Stralsund, to which city schuyts are often dispatched.

Opposite to this village is the island of Oehe, which we reached by crossing a narrow but deep creek, in a kind of praam: the island is about three miles in circumference, and level; but on the west side, nature has raised a bulwark of large stones to keep the waves within bounds. In consequence of its low situation, it is particularly exposed to the storms in spring and autumn, which prevent the complete growth of fruit and other trees. At every part of the coast I met with saline meadows. In general, the soil is tolerably productive, but the harvest is very uncertain, in consequence of the severity of the winds.

On the following morning I got a new companion, a farmer, who was on the point of proceeding for Hiddensee, to attend the sale of some stranded goods: he offered me a place in his boat; which I gladly accepted.

There is an old chronicle still existing, which states that Hiddensee had formerly been united to Rügen; but that in a most dreadful hurricane, in the year 1304, or 1309, which occasioned the greatest devastations in other parts of the island, it had been disrupted; and the separation probably took place in this quarter. There is also a popular tradition respecting the origin of the island, but modesty forbids me to relate it.

On our arrival we met with a kind reception in the convent, where we found a number of people who had met on account of the auction, which was to take place on the following day. I went down to the shore to view the wreck, which I learnt was a new brigantine from Danzick, or Königsberg, laden with wheat and linseed. The crew, who had saved themselves in their boat, were cheerfully engaged with the inhabitants in saving part of the cargo.

As the sale could not afford me any amusement, I proceeded in company with two gentlemen well acquainted with the ways, to ascend the Baakenberg or Beacon-hill, which is the highest on the whole island: it derives its name from a large barrel of pitch, fastened to a strong pole, which, in time of war, was formerly placed there, and set fire to on the approach of an enemy; but now it is no more resorted to. Not far from the convent is the village of Grieben, which is inhabited by a number of free farmers who, under the former proprietors of the island, were every day in the week obligated to work with their cart, horses, and two servants, on the estate of the owner: but the present holders of the estates have commuted it into a rent. Though their dwellings and outhouses have nothing remarkable to distinguish them, yet they were princely compared to those which I saw in the afternoon.

From Grieben we began to ascend the hill, and after pursuing a rough and meandering path for about half an hour, we gained the summit of the Baakenberg, and from this elevated point we enjoyed a most extensive view. Beneath us was the island, with its isthmus Ollen-Bessin, which affords pasture to the sheep in Grieben, and appeared like a narrow stripe of green ribband extended along the bay. Towards the east and south were the peninsulas Wittow and Jasmund; and still farther to the south, Rügen, with its numerous indentations, bays, hills, forests, corn-fields, steeples, and villages: but towards the north-west, the wide foaming sea.—What an expansive horizon! The wandering eye glanced across the swelling mass of water, till it at last found a resting-point at the verge of the horizon: this point was the Danish island Moen, which is situated seven (German) miles from this place; but the air was so uncommonly clear, that I could distinguish the clefts in the chalky shore.

I now descended to view the beach, which is naked and of a dismal appearance.

In the afternoon we made an excursion to the adjacent villages, Vitte, Plagshagen, &c. There was a small assemblage of people in a meadow, on account of a sale of some linseed, which the women belonging to Vitte had fished up. These women had most eloquent tongues: some scolding, and others lamenting that so little money was offered. Though the men were silent, still I had an opportunity of observing an instance of their avarice. A parcel of the seed disposed of, was to be conveyed on board a schuyt, which was prevented approaching nearer to the coast by the shallowness of the water. The purchaser in consequence bargained with a Hiddensee fisherman, to take it in a boat to the schuyt, for a certain sum: the islander was first at a loss what to demand, but after having consulted one of his colleagues for a considerable time, he demanded a florin, (though the distance was at the utmost only fifty paces) adding, times were hard, and but little to earn!—Although Vitte is the largest and most populous village in the island, still their huts are so miserably constructed, that they can scarcely be equalled by the most wretched in the other parts of Europe. M. Zöllner justly observes, that architecture is here in its infancy.

Hiddensee, (or as M. Zöllner writes, Hiddenso) called by foreign navigators Dorebusch, is situated on the north-west coast of Rügen, which it appears to defend against the impetuosity of the Baltic: it extends in a direction from north to south, and is in length about twelve miles. Its width is very unequal, the greatest breadth being about two miles and a quarter, and the smallest nearly 300 paces. Nature has divided the island into two parts; the mountainous or northern, and the flat or southern district. The former rises considerably above the level of the sea, but the soil is mostly poor and sandy, except in the vicinity of the convent and near Grieben, where there is some good corn-land. The level country, which is nearly eighty miles in length, has most probably been added by the sea; the land consisting of sea-sand covered with short sod, but so low that it is frequently inundated: it contains very little, and but poor corn-land; but the meadows are of a far superior quality. Between Vitte and Nenendorf, is a rich piece of peat, which supplies the whole island with fuel, there being no wood whatever for the purpose; but the smell which it emits is intolerable, and all the insides of the cottages are covered with the smoke. The poorer class also burn cow-dung; but this is so far from correcting the smell, that the adage is truly verified: “the devil is here expelled by Beelzebub.” But exclusive of its application as fuel, this peat serves them as bricks and building materials.

The Hof convent has a pleasant situation, and has lately been rebuilt. In the front is a square green spot, surrounded by cherry-trees, and opposite to this is a lodging-house, as it is termed, for visitors. It was established towards the end of the 13th century, by Wizlaf III. prince of Rügen, at the instigation of the abbot of the Cisterzienser convent, at Neuenkamp, who is said to have provided it with monks. The convent was dedicated to St. Nicolaus, the patron of mariners. In the year 1536, it was secularised, to the great sorrow of the monks, who, it appears, with great reluctance gave up the numerous silver utensils of the church. In the thirty years' war it was nearly demolished, so that its former extent can only be surmised from the few ruins which still remain.—The crop annually produced by the soil belonging to the convent, amounts, on the average, to five lasts of corn. Respecting its contribution towards the expences of the government of Rügen, it pays 7-24; and the farmers and Cossats must provide the other 17-24. I shall only add, that the convent, as well as the whole island, is an allodial estate, and was lately disposed of by M. de G. to a nobleman of Rügen.

The number of inhabitants in the island is upwards of 800. more than half of whom are males. The greater part of them are subject to vassalage, and even those whose turf-kathen (turf-huts) are their own property, have to pay a certain annual land-tax to the lord of the manor. Plogshazen and Neuendorf are inhabited by entirely free people, some of whom pay a certain annual sum for the use of the fields and meadows for their cattle, and for the privilege of searching for amber along the beach, and in spring, furnish a few pounds of salmon; but otherwise they are exempt from all the duties of vassalage. Vitte is chiefly inhabited by Cossats and Einlieger. The Käther must, if required, serve three days in the week on foot; but in general, only six or eight perform the duties of vassalage, the others paying an annual sum to be exempt. Still the latter must labour twelve days for the benefit of the estate, during the hay and corn harvest, and perform some other petty matters, such as plucking up the weeds from the flax-land, &c. But every Käther in Vitte is obligated in his turn to convey, for the benefit of the lord of the manor, his corn to Stralsund, in the bark belonging to the estate; and independent of this, he must carry a certain number of freights in his own boat, for which he receives but a few pence. Finally, the Einlieger, or lowest class of vassals, work two days in the week at the farm, or in lieu pay four rix-dollars. These people are bound to spin seven pounds of flax, but may purchase an exemption for twenty-eight shillings (Danish.) Some of the houses have, from time immemorial, been freed from this duty.—Respecting the ferry-men inhabiting the islands where

the ferries are, they are free from all servitude whatever, on payment of a certain sum annually to the lord of the manor.

Most of the inhabitants are tall and strong, of a sallow complexion, blue-eyed, with sandy-coloured hair; they are of a slender form, but slow in their movements and occupations, and are also accused of laziness and avarice. The dress of the men consists of a sailor's jacket, made of a striped stuff manufactured in the island, which also supplies the lower orders of the people with covering: their trowsers are of linen. In the summer they go mostly barefooted, or wear coarse heavy slippers with wooden soles. They are chiefly engaged in fishing; but many have acquired a considerable degree of opulence. The greater number of those who go to sea (a liberty for which the vassal must pay four rix-dollars per annum) are absent only in the summer, and amuse themselves in the villages during the winter, until their summer earning is spent, after which they seek for new engagements.

Most islanders feel a strong attachment to their own isle; but this is particularly the case with the inhabitants of Hiddensee; many of whom, after living a number of years in different parts, have been glad to return, and creep into their smoaky cabins.

I now returned to Wittow, and found Mr. S. the provost, at tea with his family, and a circle of friends; among whom was H——r, so well known by his dramatic and historical writings: I was charmed with the entertainment and interest of his discourse.

A few pictures by Matthien and his friend Hackert, which hung in the parsonage, excited my attention; but particularly attracting was a collection of ancient engravings, by the two Hackerts. They are all landscapes, but the largest represents a view of Rome, executed in a masterly style. Another performance of the elder Hackert is, a large transparent moon-light piece, (which is generally known as a discovery made by this artist): it is inserted above the door of a saloon, and towards evening it was illuminated. "However great the deception may be on the whole, still this is diminished by the lamp-light, which by its too glaring red, reflects on the Italian landscape, in every other respect beautiful. These paintings, as well as the collection of engravings, were presented from Naples to the lady of the provost, a near relation of M. von O. who first roused the genius of this artist.

On the following morning I made a short excursion to Lankensburg, a noble seat belonging to M. von L. where I spent two very agreeable days in the company of my worthy A. who boards in the house. In the afternoon he accompanied me to inspect the grave of one of the Huns, situated on a heath between the

forms Nunevitz and Schwarbe, and built of stones. We next proceeded for the celebrated Arkona. The whole of the road to the village of Putgard, which is the last on the northern side of the country, led along a continued plain through the most luxuriant corn-fields; but scarcely had we quitted the village when the country began to rise, the corn-fields by degrees to vanish, and the green woody hillocks of the cape, together with a part of its chalky cliffs, ascended in the back ground. Within a quarter of an hour, which was rendered longer by my impatience, the carriage stopped, and we alighted at a pasturage. I hastily ascended, and leant against the fire-beacon, to rest on the summit of this northern cape; but who could think of resting in a place where every object around invites the eye to enjoyment? One of the greatest objects here was the view of the Baltic, which had assumed the colour of the grey sky, and embraced the half of the horizon towards the north. On the right hand were the elevated shores of Jasmund covered with wood; on the left hand the highlands of Hiddensee, with the island of Moen at a distance; and then the prospect of the interior across Wittow and Rügen; what a glorious spectacle! We now descended, and took a survey of the two shores, of which that to the right is the most interesting.

Respecting the former sea-port town of Arkona, the temple and idol of Suantevit and its destruction, I must refer you to Zöllner and Nernst, who have skilfully collected the materials for the history of this place, from the more ancient historians. I shall only make one observation, that Arkona* is generally called Uhrtkona, Ollkona, and Akona, by the common people in the isle of Wittow; among whom they have a tradition that, at the top of the plain around the rampart, where at present a naked heath is seen, several centuries ago, a forest of lofty beech-trees extended along the shore. Towards evening we quitted Arkona with a loud farewell, which resounded from the walls of its sublime dome, and departed from Putgard by way of Presenzke, through Altenkirchen to Lankensburg.

LETTER III.

EXCURSION TO ALTENKIRCHEN.—VILLAGES, NUMBER OF INHABITANTS, CURIOSITIES, &c.

BERGEN, 10th August,

ON the following morning I undertook an excursion to Altenkirchen, which is only two or three hundred paces from Lan-

* Whether the name Arkona has any affinity to the Italian Ancona, I must leave to the antiquarians to decide.

kensburg, through a strait alley beset with young Italian or Canadian poplars: my intention was to pay a visit to Dr. Rosegarten. A tall man, of a middle age, pale countenance, with a dark piercing eye, and dark hair cut short, gave me so cheerful a welcome, that on approaching him my heart felt lighter. The affability of his conduct, together with his animated and social discourse, banished the little remains of timidity which I had brought with me from Lankensburg. He speaks very fast, but with energy, and his diction is elegant; his exterior displays the geniality of his mind, which owes a great part of its cultivation to its own powers. His study is naturally the seat of elegance and neatness; and is well provided with a choice collection of books on all branches of literature, of ancient and modern nations. He formerly played the flute, but a weakness in the chest compelled him to abandon it; and in his sitting-room I found both a harp and piano-forte; for the latter instrument he had composed many of his own songs. As a true admirer of the plastic arts, he possesses a very valuable treasure in drawings and engravings; some of which serve to decorate his apartments, while the larger and more scarce prints are made up in folios. Among the engravings are several after Raphael, which occupy the first place; next to these are some other excellent productions of the art, by Germans and foreigners; for instance, the principal sheets of the Chalcographic Society in Dessau, the best landscape pieces by Hackert, the celebrated "Last Supper" by Morghen, a number of portraits by Lips, Bause, &c. with several productions of English artists, &c. Independent of these, are a couple of engravings by Piranesi, representing Hercules and the group of Cupid and Psyche, in which the touch is bold and harmonious. Besides these, is a neat collection of small engravings and vignettes, taken from the German *belles lettres*. Among the designs are three or four, which are executed with spirit and industry: they are views from Arkona and Stubbenkammer, by a young artist named Friedrichs.

Though M. Kosegarten is a native of Mecklenburgh, still he is so decidedly attached to the island of Rügen, that he has remained twelve years resident there. He has the general character of being an assiduous author, a kind father, a disinterested friend, an upright spiritual pastor to his congregation, and charitable to the extreme. Hence he merits his living, which is considered as the most productive in the whole island.

Altenkirchen is a neatly-built village, containing about fifty houses, mostly thatched with straw, and 250 inhabitants. The country about Altenkirchen is level, without any variation to relieve the eye, the only green bush being a small patch to the

south of the place, which is covered with a few wild pear-trees and thorn-bushes. In short, all Wittow is one continued plain, which in summer may appear enlivened by the luxuriant growth of undulating corn, but in autumn and toward Lent, the unploughed and fallow land gives it a truly melancholy appearance.

The peninsula of Wittow is the north-east part of Rügen: it is about eleven miles in length, and at the utmost six miles and a half in width, and upwards of twenty-two miles in circumference. It extends from south-west to north-east, and though sufficiently elevated above the level of the sea, still the country is a perfect plain as far as Arkona, where it begins to rise: it branches off into two long arms, one of which is called the small Wittow-beach; the other is called the Bug, from the extremity of which the post-office packets occasionally proceed for Sweden. There is a great want of pasturage and meadows; but latterly some of the owners of the estates have begun to cultivate trefoil, &c. In respect to wood, of which there is also a great deficiency, the general complaint is, that the severity of the climate frustrates all attempts to establish a plantation; and even the farmers, who in their leases engage to plant a certain number of trees on their farms, prefer paying the penalty attached to the omission of this regulation.. But to be convinced of the contrary, one need only take a survey of Altenkirchen, Sulinsruhe, Lanken, &c. and their vicinity, where the ash, willow, and several fruit-trees thrive considerably. A still more important reason for this inattention to plantations of trees is, the great advantages derived from the different species of grain, especially rye, of which the produce is in some years so great, that they actually export upwards of 1000 lasts per annum.

The whole country contains about 3000 inhabitants, among whom the vassals are in proportion to the free people, as 100 to 1. The former are subject to the customary services of vassalage; the young men, however, frequently obtain permission of the owners of the estates to which they belong, to go to sea; in this they are generally encouraged by the example of their friends, by the fishery and coasting trade. Though I could not observe any striking peculiarity among the country people, still I must add, that the increased intercourse with each other, the journeys to the towns, the proximity to Jasmund, the family connections with Rügen, the friendly visits, &c. &c. have all contributed to render the manners of these people softer than those of their neighbours in Hiddensee.

After passing through the villages of Neuenkirchen and Rappien, I arrived at the Banselvitzer hills. Immediately on leaving the village of Great Banselwitz, the ground begins to ascend; and on a sudden I found myself on the brink of a beach. Across

the water before me lay extended, like an amphitheatre, Jamund, with its fields and forests, which, stretching in a direction to the north-west, and uniting with the promontory, seemed to form a continuation of a chain of hills, at the extremity of which the seat named Tetzitz, rose above the summit of a forest of fir-trees. But towards the west, the prospect was still more luxuriant; or rather, it appeared to be boundless: at least the imagination could have extended it ad infinitum, as the sun so strongly illumined the landscape, that the eye became dazzled, and the back ground was lost in the retiring mist.

On the road to Bergen a new curiosity attracted my attention. A number of conical grave-mounds, resembling so many bells, appeared to obstruct the way to Patziz. But as I approached them, they were parted off on each side, and left me a free passage between them: they were eighteen in number, eight of which were on the left, and ten on the right side, but without order. Some were bare, and only covered with short sod and juniper, or blackberry-bushes, &c. The first on the right-hand is of a most singular shape, resembling a cone, cut smooth on every side, and at the top of which myriads of swallows have taken up their residence: the last on the right hand is nearly levelled to the ground, and appears like an invalid among his brethren. Of two of the most considerable I took the dimensions: the circumference of the larger amounted to 112 paces at the foot; that of the smaller, to 106 paces; and the perpendicular height of the tallest I estimated at from sixteen to twenty feet. Though at first I felt inclined to consider this phenomenon as a *lusus nature*, reflexion and experience, however, convinced me that such tumuli could never be of that description. They are called the Wohrker-hills, from the neighbouring village Wohrke.

LETTER IV.

ACCOUNT OF THE RUGARD.—REMARKS ON THE ANCIENT PRINCES OF RUGEN, &c.

BERGEN, *August 18.*

MY time here is chiefly spent in visiting-parties, or making short excursions to examine the beauties of nature; but no spot has attraction equal to the Rugard.

This grand object, on which nature has lavished her brightest charms, is the highest hill in Rügen-Propser; and being situated in the centre of the island, it is impossible to find a better spot to view the peculiar charms with which the island is gifted. You find yourself here surrounded with an indescribable variety of objects; their connection with each other, their divisions and sections by the sea, their perspective sites and distances—all inces-

charm the eye, without satiating it. The Rugard rests on an ascent, which forms its foot, on the north-east side of the town, from which it is separated but a few hundred paces. The best way to ascend it is from Raddas, because from that side the surprise is the greater. It is also advisable to visit it repeatedly, and at different parts of the day; partly on account of the variegated reflexions, and partly in order to become more intimate with its beauties: for it would be impossible at one view to embrace the enchanting change of groups of landscapes! To attempt a description with words, would be in vain: it must be the pencil of a master that can give you an idea of this*. Were it not for the numerous diminutive objects, a painting of it would, in my opinion, be one of the most interesting subjects for a panorama.

In fact, the ancient princes of Rügen could not have selected a more delightful spot for their residence than the summit of this mountain, which commands a view over the whole island. There stood here formerly, the castle Rugard, or Rügigard, from which the hill has derived its name: at present it is vulgarly called Rügord; it was built by prince Jaromar I. but now there is not the least vestige of it to be perceived, the ground being covered with corn. From certain appearances, however, it must have been very considerable.

Sometimes I extend my rambles beyond the Rugard, especially towards the south: nature is here wild, and yet pleasant, the heights being overgrown with moss, and bushes, or naked and covered with stones. On one of these hills I discovered a stone-chest, as it is termed; but it was very small, and in a bad state of preservation: the bottom had given way, and the stone which covered it, about two yards in length and one in height, lay in an oblique direction over it. Close to it I also found another grave of a Hun, which was only twenty-five paces long, and ten broad, but encircled with stones, juniper, &c. Not far from it is a conic grave-mound on a rising ground, of which it forms the summit. The prospect of all these hillocks, and the parts contiguous, is not less attractive than the objects from the Rugard; and though the landscape is less beautiful, we have still the advantage here, that our eye is, on account of the more limited space, better able to collect and retain the objects with more accuracy.

I have just returned from a visit to Pulitz, which is one of the most romantic spots imaginable. Its solitary and isolated situ-

* Luxuriance of masses and forms, the infinite modifications, the variegated intermixture and connection of the single parts, which the most lively imagination and exquisite genius of the artist could not have more happily arranged, render the view beyond description beautiful.

ation, surrounded by verdant inclosures, its green pyramidal form resting on a silver mirror, captivates the eye even at a distance. There are two ways to it; the one by water, the other mostly by land, but occasionally by water. I preferred the latter.

As soon as I landed on the island, I ascended the hill with some difficulty, but in a short time arrived at the summit, which is one of the most interesting spots on the island. To the west I saw Stedar, in the vicinity of a clear lake, with its dark background of heath, hills, &c.; to the north, were Jasmund and Thiessaw, contiguous to the sea; to the east, the island of Piora, and some detached pieces of the woody granite; and to the south, the Tannenbergl, near Putlins. These are the limits of a landscape, on which Nature has spread her engaging charms.

Pultz extends itself in a direction from south to north, in the bay of Jasmund: it is about a league in circumference. Nature has divided this island into three parts; one of which is high and mountainous, and on the one side inclosed by a forest of fir-trees, &c.; the middle of the island is level, and in some parts the ground is rising, which is employed for the culture of corn, though the corn did not appear to be in a very luxuriant state; the third part is inclosed by a forest of fir-trees, as the first. This is a sketch of this little island, which I reckon among the greatest beauties that Rugen has to produce. To me it appears to be the most charming asylum to which a person seeking retirement could retreat.

LETTER V.

BIRGEN, *August 30.*

MY joy is now complete. I have seen the picturesque peninsula of Jasmund, and the celebrated Stubbekammer, at first my sole motive for undertaking the journey.

I set out from Birgen by water, in company with a small party who were going to Sagard. The first village at which we stopped was Strussendorf, the soil of which appeared to be very meagre and sandy; but beyond it the landscape becomes more agreeable and variegated. We next took a distant survey of Ralswiek (a beautiful estate most delightfully situated,) and of the surrounding country. Before us was Jasmund, and to the right the neighboring estate of Jamitz, with its stately verdant hmts, &c.

We now arrived at the ferry, which, in about a quarter of an hour conveyed us to Jasmund. Our entry into this part of the

country was far from being agreeable ; but on approaching towards Sagard, the road leads through a plain covered with corn, and on every side I noticed pieces of water, heights, mills, rural cottages, &c.

Having observed a hill near Sagard, which appeared to me remarkable, I paid it a visit in the evening : it is situated in the middle of a field, and in shape resembling the conic Wohrker grave-mounds before described ; in short, it is the grave of a Vandal. The inhabitants call it Dubberworth. I measured its circumference, and found it to consist of 170 paces ; its height I estimated at 32 feet.

The country-people of Jasmund relate the following tale respecting the origin of the Dubberworth :—They assert, that in time immemorial, an immense giantess lived in Jasmund, to whom the country was subject. Having tendered her hand to the prince of Rügen, who, however, declined the *great* honour, she immediately resolved to compel him to marry her by force of arms. Now, in order to convey her army with expedition and safety to Jasmund, she hit upon the idea of filling up the bay of Jasmund with sand. But the first attempt proved so unsuccessful, that she gave up the plan of blocking up the passage : for, at Sagard, they say, the apron or sack, which she carried, got a rend, through which a large stream of sand escaped, and formed the Dubberworth.—They add, that she had scarcely dragged her burthen to the Litzow ferry, when the whole apron was completely torn, and the sand heaped up into those hills which I before mentioned.

Early the next morning we set out from Sagard by water, towards Sassenitz, but turned off from the straight road through a wood, in order to inspect a grave said to be the largest in Jasmund : this is, however, not the fact, it being only thirty-six paces in length : the dark-grey stones, however, with which it is encompassed, are considerably larger than the one on Strussmannsdorf-heath ; and particularly striking is the corner-stone at the foot of the grave, being upwards of eight feet in length. In other respects the grave is, towards the middle, excavated like a tray, and the stones are, on the south side, in the best state of preservation.

Our way lay through the wood, the cooling shade of which greatly refreshed us. One spot in particular invited my attention, where a rivulet gently murmured over the smooth pebbles, and gradually winding itself between the trunks of trees, at last formed a cataract, which rushed aloud towards the shore : it is called the Tribberbach. Among the stones at the edge of it was one of an extraordinary size, in the shape of an oven, and



Specimen of a Country House, at Rugen.

covered with fresh moss : its height I estimated at from twelve to sixteen feet.

After passing through Krampaz, we were almost overcome by the piercing heat of the sun, till we arrived at Sassnitz, which has a very romantic situation near the sea. Here we soon obtained a vessel to convey us to the Stubbenkammer.

Immediately beyond Sassnitz the cliffs become chalky, and assume myriads of shapes and forms, affording a grand scope for a playful imagination: in short, the interest of the passage is still more increased by the numerous small projections of the shore, which in succession surprise the eye with new objects.

The chief topic in the boat related to the Stubbenkammer, and soon passed on to the two famous pirates, Clas Störtebecker and Michael Gädike. The latter is reported to have been a vassal belonging to the estate of Ruschvitz, in Jasmund; and the former to have been born in Pomerania. After having deserted their service, they by degrees became the commanders in chief of a powerful band of robbers, who, in the fourteenth century, under the name of Vitalien brethren, and Lynkendeeler, were a terror to the peaceable navigators. These rangers of the Baltic are stated to have had their booty stored up in a cave of the Stubbenkammer, which I shall soon further notice: they were, however, pursued and dispersed by the Hanse towns; Störtebecker and Gädike were made prisoners near Heligoland, and executed near Hamburg, in the year 1402.

At last we reached the object of our curiosity, where Nature has united all her powers to complete her gigantic works, and form the boldest and most astonishing piles. Unwieldy masses are here scattered in all directions, and the shore is rent into chasms, which would excite the utmost horror, were the dreariness not relieved by a supertexture of fresh and verdant drapery, and delightful garlands.

The best point of view appears to be with the eye directed towards the shore, having the north-west side in a line with Wittow on the right, and the south-east towards Sassnitz on the left. In the first place rise the sides of the Little Stubbenkammer, perpendicularly dissected, and fissured at the upper end in every direction: it is isolated by a deep chasm to the left, the extremity of which is most worthy of notice: here are six or seven columns irregularly shaped, and evidently bearing the marks of the corroding tooth of time more strongly than the contiguous sides, with which they have formerly been connected.

Between Little Stubbenkammer and the next projection is a considerable chasm in the shore; and in this fissure, concealed from top to bottom by trees close to each other, is the ascent to the summit.

We next meet with an enormous mass of chalk, resembling the lower part of a pyramid: it is justly called the King's Seat, and projects beyond the other sides: to the left, near the great fissure, are two sections, and in the middle is a pyramidal column close to the wall. The whole is of a dirty white, inclining to a yellow and grey shade. To the right of the King's Seat is a niche, which nature has formed into a gigantic portal: it consists of two irregular, or pointed columns, resembling two giants guarding the entrance to the chasm, studded with flints, and about a fathom asunder. From this cavity the chalky sides again appear ascending a certain distance, where they abruptly terminate in a perpendicular precipice. Here the chalk is at an end; and the sloping shore now descends covered with beech-trees. While I was resting myself opposite to Störteheck's cave, I was astonished at the immense quantity of chalk with which Jasmund abounds, and which, in case of necessity, is sufficient to supply all Germany for centuries, without a possibility of exhausting the grand store; but at present it is totally useless. The chalky surface is covered with a dark-grey vegetable earth mixed with loam, from four to eight feet deep, from which a stately forest of beech-trees loftily raises its head.

Though a traveller may meet with more enormous masses of rock, without feeling the same emotions which he here experiences, the striking contrast, however, of the colourist, will, in general, give the preference and the character of originality to the Stubbenkammer: for here are but three prominent colours; namely, the azure of the sea in the foreground, the lively verdure of the beech-forest, and meadow-land along the declivity; behind which is the dazzling white of the chalky surface, forming with its green projections the elevated back-ground, resembling a garden surrounded by immense white walls.

Respecting the etymology of the name Stubbenkammer, the opinions are too various and improbable to merit our serious attention: for who would attempt to trace a term lost centuries ago, where history is totally silent?

We now proceeded to the great chasm on the other side of the King's Seat, to which we ascended by a steep foot-path, rendered, in some degree, easy to pass by steps being hewn into the solid mass. A storm retarded our progress for a short time; we, however, reached the summit, where all nature appeared clad in her brightest garb. The desire of beholding the prospect from the King's Seat, the highest point of the promontory, now gave wings to our steps.—A narrow path led us to a small open spot, resembling an irregular oval, crowned almost to the margin with trees, at some distance from each other. In the first moments, a certain fear pervades our feelings; and the eye, inca-

pable of comprehending the whole at one view, is either attracted by the prospects of the great chasms, and the Little Stubbenkammer, or the fluted walls to the left, and the dreary declivity of the shore; or it hurries across the azure of the sea.

However grand every object here appeared to be, still, after a mature consideration, the side perspective view of the Little Stubbenkammer, and its adjoining chasm (whose depth and extent are here distinctly ascertained) was to me the most attractive scene; though every thing here is united to form a wild, rich, and bold picture of nature, to which the eye is continually drawn, and the diversity of which prevents all satiation. At the farthermost point of the King's Seat is a small ridge, terminating in a point: from this king Charles XII. is said to have witnessed a naval engagement, a circumstance which is reported to have given rise to the name of the King's Seat.

Respecting its height, it is only about 430 feet above the level of the sea; no very considerable height, if we compare it with other summits of mountains; but in Rügen it certainly is the queen of heights.

Of the ruinous buildings of the Stubbenkammer, I have not been able to select one which I could pronounce to be a true copy. The one which I here give, was taken from the lower parts opposite to the pillars: I can vouch for its correctness.

With regret I now quitted the promontory, and proceeded through the wood, where I unexpectedly met with an ancient wall, usually called the Borg-wall. The awful silence which here prevails, cannot fail to fill the mind of the traveller with melancholy sensations, and naturally leads him to make enquiry as to its origin. Historians and antiquarians have spent much time in endeavouring to trace the object of this monument; and some have even attempted to render the passage in Tacitus's *Germania*, cap. 40. correspondent with the subject in question; but to me it appears to have been nothing else than the residence of robbers in the wood: this is more probable from its exterior. Nay, it may have been the depository for the treasury of the pirates Störtebecker and Gädike, and received its present name in a subsequent century.

A little higher up are two open stone-graves, almost filled up with withered beech-leaves. To the west is a lake, about 300 feet in breadth, and 400 feet above the level of the sea: it is called the Borgsee, also the Black Sea, on account of the closeness of the trees with which it is surrounded; the water is clear, but has rather a moorish taste. This lake also abounds in fish, and is said to contain haddocks of a great age, whose backs are covered with moss. The greatest height of this wall is the north-west corner, where, in overlooking the extremity of the

forest, the eye is agreeably surprised with the view of Arkona. At the outward extremity of the woody part, the depth is, at least, from 120 to 160 feet; at other parts, from 80 to 100 feet; while in the inside it is only from 20 to 40 feet: and upon the whole, the entire circumference of the Burg-wall comprises 550 paces.

In respect to the forest, its surface is estimated at 3000 acres of land, producing principally beech and oak trees. From the number of persons entitled annually to cut wood here, the forest has been considerably thinned; but a new arrangement on this point has lately taken place, according to which the persons above-mentioned are invited to accept a quantity of turf, in lieu of a certain number of loads of wood.

We now set out on our return, in which our way led us over hills, through woods, corn-fields, &c. We soon arrived at Hoch-Selow; the highest points of the peninsula, from which one of the most delightful views is to the south-west; where the country, appearing laid out in different dimensions, and forming, as it were, rhomboidal figures, almost resembles the chequers of a chess-board. At the verge of the horizon, on the left, appear the steeples of Greifswald, and towards the right, those in Stralsund.

On our arrival at the village called Wesselin, we agreed with a woman of that place to shew us the Offering-stone. After passing two heights, we came to a level spot, in the middle of which was a grey stone: this is the asserted Offering-stone, lying in a direction from south-east to north-west. The mass is granite, sharply pointed towards the north, is from eight to ten feet long, and not quite four in height. In the surface of the sharp part are hewn some small excavations, in which, according to the assurance of our female guide, the clergy are said to have placed the chalices used in offerings.

Towards noon we arrived at Sagard, a market-town situated in a fertile valley, almost in the centre of the country. At a distance its appearance is far more delightful than on approaching it; the houses being small, mean, and mostly covered with straw: the streets are irregular, and not paved, or very badly. At present it contains 112 hearths, and 518 inhabitants, of whom 193 are free people, and 397 vassals.

There is at this place a mineral spring; and in the year 1794, accommodations were made for the guests, the first of whom made their appearance in the following year. Of the virtues of the mineral water, and the cases in which it may be salubrious, I must be silent, as this point can only be determined by a number of experiments and constant use of it. I can only safely give the assurance, that the water is uncommonly clear, and of a

substringent taste. At the same time, I must admit, that at the watering-places the cure does not always depend alone on the mineral water, but on the novelty of the place, the removal from domestic cares, by daily and variating diversions, on the intercourse with strangers, and the interest of new connections—all of which influencing the mind and body, perhaps tend more to promote a recovery than all the drinking and bathing in the world.

Before I quit this Arcadian land, I must still add a brief geographical sketch of this part of Rügen.—The peninsula of Jasmund lies to the north-east of Rügen, and projects between two gulphs. Its greatest extent is from south-west to north-east; it is between seven and eight miles in length, and about twenty-two in circumference. Respecting the interior of the peninsula, the soil, &c. I have already made a variety of remarks. The plains in the interior and some of the districts adjoining the shore, are extremely fertile; the lower grounds are covered with grass; the hills are partly woody, partly barren, stony or chalky, as is the case with the Stubnitz. The whole population of Jasmund is divided into the two parishes of Sagard and Bobbin: the number of inhabitants amounts to 2,800 (most of whom are vassals); and agriculture, grazing, fishery, and wood, form the principal means of support to the country.

On my returning to Bergen, I had a very dreary road to pass, with a burning sun above, which soon produced the most melancholy sensations within my breast; and to add to my misfortune, I had missed part of my way: at last I gained an open view between the sand-hills, and perceived the Prora before me, which hill I with some difficulty surmounted, and cheered my eye with the prospect of Rügen, and its verdure. The remaining part of the way led through a beautiful landscape; and at noon I reached Bergen, though the distance from Sagard to this town is only nine miles.

LETTER VI.

September 15.

I HASTEN to embrace the first moment to give you an account of a new excursion, which has filled my soul with the most enthusiastic raptures. In the course of this ramble I have witnessed delights which I shall never be able sufficiently to commend; and which, with the exception of Pulitz and the Stubbenkammer, I prefer to all the other beauties of Rügen.

This praise is due to the eastern part of the island, which I have lately perambulated, principally with the view of visiting the

twenty years, at the stipulated sum of eighty rix-dollars per ann. no person dare shoot a stag under a penalty of ten or twenty rix-dollars: Count Brache, however, has the privilege of hunting them in the forests of Jasmund. In consequence of this regulation, and their great increase, it is natural to suppose that the stag must become a downright torment to the poor husbandman, by treading down the corn in summer, and stripping the willows and other trees of their bark in winter, and frequently eating clean off, in one night, the produce of an entire cabbage-garden; complaints which are frequently laid to their charge.

The Granitz may justly be termed a chain of hills, covered with woods. That part of the forest which belongs to the family of Putbus, covers upwards of 2000 acres of land; its greatest length may probably amount to near five miles, and its breadth to two and a half.

On our return to Lauken, we took a short survey of the surrounding country; and I do not exaggerate, when I maintain, that Lauken is situated in one of the most delightful parts of all Rugen. Notwithstanding it was autumn, still vegetation was fresh and gay, and its colour enlivened by the roseate glance of the declining sun smiling on these grounds; the Granitz hills alone were enveloped in darkness.

At an early hour, on the following morning, we continued our tour to the country of Möuchgut, and, after ascending a very steep hill, we descended towards the shore, which, the artist asserted, always afforded finer prospects than the common road: the truth of this assertion I am at all times ready to admit. We at length reached the Peerd, a promontory forming a semicircle, nearly five miles in extent. It is not very high, still it has its peculiar charms, one of the principal of which is the delightful side perspective view to the right, formed by the beach of Möuchgut, the Granitz, and the chalky cliffs of Jasmund; in short, it is a very appropriate counter-part to the Granitz, Stubbenkammer, and to Arkona. At the same time, this corner affords the best anchorage for vessels; though otherwise, the coast of Möuchgut is equally celebrated for shipwrecks as those of Jasmund, Wittow, and Hiddensee.

As we had entered this part of the country not from the common inland road, we now found ourselves obliged to cross a short steep road to the Hagler. At the top of this acclivity several other hills join, and gradually descend towards the Zakker hills, into a plain, the most extensive, and, perhaps, only one in Möuchgut.

The inhabitants of Möuchgut have different modes of fishing. Flounders and herrings are caught in a large net resembling a bag or purse, to each side of which is attached a long rope, with

small straw-bands wound round it at distinct intervals, and which are shaken during the rowing : the straw is used for the purpose of frightening the fish. This net, of which there is a representation on the engraving of the Hiddensee but, is likewise employed for catching eels. The herrings are caught in *manschen* or *mansen**. In spite, however, of all the endeavours of the fishermen to take care of their nets, they are sometimes carried away by the power of the water ; the sea-dog also does considerable mischief to them in autumn, by devouring the herrings, and adhering to the nets.—In some of the creeks they often fish in the evening in shallow ground by torch-light, with a view of illuminating the surface of the water, and of alluring the inhabitants of the deep by the reflection of the light : this practice is called *Blüsen*. They frequently have with them a small fish-receiver, in the shape of a boat, closed at the top, and perforated on every side : such a vessel floating behind the fishing-boat, is called a *Hüdefass*, or *Drawall*.

From Lobbe we proceeded to visit the Zickerschen hills, which in shape resemble undulations, and, like then vallies, are mostly cultivated ; but towards the shore they assume a more rude appearance. Some views from the beach are enchanting : in short, I must confess, that Mönchgut presents some of the finest sea-prospects in Rügen. One of the hills, called the Schwantegard, is famous on account of the following tradition, which the clergyman communicated to us.—A deep cave is reported to have formerly existed in this part of the shore, under the name of the Nuns'-Cave ; because in ancient times nuns resident in the town, who were sentenced to be immured alive, were occasionally brought hither, and thrown into the cave. At present, not the least vestige is remaining of this once formidable cave ; but old people assert, that during the lives of their fathers the aperture had not yet been closed.

The peninsula of Mönchgut is about fourteen miles from Bergen, and forms the extreme point of Rügen to the south east. The country itself is mountainous, and the ~~form~~ and nature of the hills strongly resemble those in Hiddensee, but are less bare. At the same time I must candidly confess, that, upon the whole, the beauties of Mönchgut are certainly superior to those of Hiddensee. Though Mönchgut cannot be considered as a very productive corn-country, it has still a number of spots which gratefully repay the labours of the husbandman. The most fertile parts are near the Hagen, and the plain of Lobbe.

This peninsula, a royal domain, is mortgaged to Major von B. for several years to come. The number of inhabitants amounts to upwards of 700. among whom are some free people :

* Nets, resembling those used by the fishermen in the Thames.—EDITOR.

the vassals have, in general, three days to work for their owners; but may be released from this part of their duty on paying a stipulated sum. Some of the inhabitants are pilots: for the ships which sail to Wolgast, Greifswald, or Stralsund, instead of passing through the Gellen, usually go round Rügen, by the way of the Old or New Diep. But as the passage through the straits between Pomernia and Rügen is equally unsafe, all ships which pursue this track are obliged to take a pilot on board, either from Gören, Lübbow, or Thelsow: if a ship is wrecked, the pilot can call the captain to account at the *Liecentgericht* of the place where he is in harbour. The pilotage is settled according to the burden of the vessel, and the distance of the way: it amounts from one to two and four *rix-dollars*.

Notwithstanding his familiarity with the watery element, the native of Mönchgut is less inclined to go abroad than that of Hiddensee, in short, his little district is his world, to which he invariably returns. The fishery, agriculture, and piloting, afford him a sufficient support. He lives among his brethren and relations, standing in no personal connection with the other part of Rügen: for in general, the Mönchguters only intermarry with natives of their own island; consequently a certain patriarchal simplicity of character, language, dress, customs, &c. has still retained its originality, which distinguishes them from all the other country people in Rügen.

Fashion has hitherto not had the least influence on these people. The cut and colour of their dress are the same as they were several centuries ago, and still display some monastic vestiges: and so rigidly and scrupulously do they adhere to the conservation of this dress, that, if a girl of Mönchgut would dare to clothe herself like other Rügenian girls, only a little in the new style, they would incur the danger of being universally derided, and never get a husband.

The men wear black jackets with black buttons, *at least* two pair of small-clothes, and over these, a pair of wide overalls made of white linen; but, on solemn occasions, these are black: their stockings are of dark-brown wool, and their shoes mostly fastened with leather strings. The women wear black jackets and petticoats, which are short, and have an infinite number of folds; they have a fine white cap on their head, which is covered by a thick black cap stuffed with wool, of a conic shape, so as to leave but a small stripe visible at the top. It is the head-dress which constitutes the characteristics of married women and girls; the seams of the cap of the former being covered with black, and fastened underneath with a black silk riband; while the riband of the latter must only be of wool.—The females always wear two chemises, one of which is without sleeves, but over this they

have a finer one with sleeves. When the girls take the sacrament, which is generally once a year, shortly before the harvest commences, they braid their hair, and wind it round their head; they then pass a gold or silver embroidered bandage over it. A widow, in her mourning year, is easily distinguished at church, by her sitting on a small chair opposite to her former seat.—From these few singularities it must appear evident, that the inhabitant of Mönchgut wishes to distinguish himself from the people in the other parts of Rügen.

They are both active and laborious; hence a certain degree of opulence is generally prevalent; at the same time, they cannot be strictly acquitted of interestedness and avarice. The men mostly follow husbandry, or the profitable occupation of fishing; and the herrings which they catch towards the latter end of autumn, and sell either fresh, pickled, or dried, afford them an ample profit.

I shall conclude my remarks on Mönchgut and its inhabitants, with a short description of the ceremonies attending their marriages. Neither man nor woman will here think of matrimony, unless one of them possesses a *kath* or cottage; and as soon as the parties are agreed, the consent of their ground-landlord is requested.

In the afternoon of the wedding-day, the relations and friends of the bridegroom repair to his house, and, *vice versa*, with the bride, each inviting their friends separately. At last the parties proceed towards the church; and in the church-yard both unite: upon which the bridegroom salutes his bride by pressing her hand. If the bride be a girl from a different village, and have to follow her husband to another quarter, in that case she generally takes a solemn leave of all her relations with tears, as if she were never more to behold her paternal roof. After the ceremony, both sexes separate, and the females retire with the bride to the warm-beer-house, where one of the women presents the bride with some warm beer, and desires her, in a verse, to drink beer with all her friends, and live happily, till they meet in heaven again. The warm beer, plentifully studded with large raisins, now passes round briskly till towards evening, when the discharge of a pistol summons them to the bridegroom's dwelling, where an immense dish of rice constitutes the first course, which is succeeded by a variety of others, during which time the cup-bearer is very actively employed.

The dress of the bride is very little more ornamental than usual, excepting that she wears a wreath on her head, and above it a kind of crown made of twigs of box, with gilt or silver leaves, and that her hair is dressed for the purpose, stiffened, and glossed with the white of eggs. The bridegroom is only distin-

guished by a large white neck-handkerchief, a present from his bride, the corners of which hang down low in front: should he, however, previous to the wedding, have obtained the *jus primæ noctis*, the ends must be tucked in, and concealed. In respect to the defraying the expences attending the wedding, it is customary for both bride and bridegroom to pay a proportion, according to the number invited by each.

In this brief sketch I have given you a faithful characteristic of the country of Mönchgut, its inhabitants, their manners, customs, &c. We now took the road leading to Posewald. Near the Thrausberg is a heap of stones piled up, resembling a monument: it is called the Triumphal Pile. The inhabitants of Putbus are reported formerly to have had a severe contest here with those of Mönchgut, in memory of which the victors afterwards raised this pile. A little farther on is the village of Gros-Stresow, celebrated by a battle fought here in 1715, between a small Swedish force under Charles XII. and a Danish army of 18,000 or 20,000 men, under the command of Admiral Sehstädt, in which the former were defeated.

My next ramble was to view the mansion of Putbus, in the environs of Posewald. This edifice has a cheerful and lightsome appearance: its interior is less splendid than I imagined, for though the arrangements in the saloons and apartments are neat, still there is a want of elegance and magnificence in the decorations and furniture. The library contains numerous French works, but few modern German literary productions: it is stated to contain 16,000 volumes. Of more importance are the archives, and the diplomatician might there find many solutions to the difficulties in the history of the country.

LETTER VII.

BERGEN, September 20.

THIS time I must, for a change, discourse with you on a subject more *grave* than we have hitherto been accustomed to; namely, I have been visiting the Vandal graves near Krakow: they are four or five in number, concealed among bushes, which renders it difficult to discover them. They are much smaller than the stone-bed at Silvitz, and only one is in complete preservation. I descended through an opening into one, and found the sunken stones in the inside smooth and closely connected, forming a tolerably accurate square, about two feet in width, and the same in breadth; but the bottom was almost choaked up with earth. For want of a spade I could not ascertain their

proper depth, nor whether there might be an urn at the bottom. I afterwards discovered a flat grey stone, from six to eight feet in length, lying in a straight direction: on its smooth surface I perceived a small channel cut lengthways, about two inches in breadth; but towards the middle, the passage was uninterrupted for the space of two hands' breadth. Hence I concluded, that the sacrifices had been slaughtered on this stone, and the rill was provided for the purpose of draining off the blood.

These remains of antiquity, which in every part of Rügen (the small contiguous islands and Mouchgut excepted) are generally denominated Vandal graves, are also called Hünegräber. The word Hüne is Low German, and signifies a giant; hence it might appear that they had been the graves of giants. But where were giants ever found from 30 to 60 feet in length? Some have scarcely the size of a common grave, viz. the stone beds. How could these have suited the length of a giant? The only fact on which we can rely is, that they must have been funeral places, from the urns and skeletons found underneath. At the same time, the greatest difficulty is, to explain the manner and age in which the tumuli in Wittow, on Patzig heath, &c. &c. have originated: for the stone-beds bear evident marks of a certain degree of culture. I am, however, inclined to deem them relics of the Slavonic-Vandal times; because the Vandals were occupied in maritime trade, and built vessels.

Harvest being quite concluded, gives me an opportunity of offering a few remarks on the general state of agriculture, and its produce here. They commonly begin to plough the land on the 25th of March, with four horses; but the poorer husbandman often only with two: and oxen are seldom used. Barley and oats, after sowing, are always ploughed in again; but this is not the case with the wheat and rye. The harrows are, in general, of wood; but iron harrows are employed in a stubborn, hard soil. There are certain days on which the husbandman deems it particularly favourable to begin sowing; these are the 10th, 11th, 12th, 19th, and 20th of May; but oats and barley are put later in the ground. They mostly steep the wheat used for sowing in a solution of lime, or a kaline ley, in order to prevent the blight, and to keep the birds off. The harvest commences about the middle of August, and is completed towards the middle of September, unless it is protracted by unfavourable weather.—They begin with the rye, and employ the scythe, the sickle being entirely discarded. After all is collected, they have a harvest fête, in which the lord of the manor, with his family, participates, and to which he contributes a considerable share.

A great quantity of corn is annually exported, particularly to Pomerania and Prussia. The nearest calculation which I have

been able to form of the exportation of grain (after deducting a sufficiency for home consumption) amounts to upwards of 16,000 lasts.

I shall conclude this letter, and my tour through Rügen, with a brief topographical sketch of Bergen, as far as I have had an opportunity of making observations.

This city has three fairs annually, each of which lasts but one day, and is attended by a considerable number of little traders and manufacturers with their goods, which occasions much bustle: they are held at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Michaelmas. On these occasions a considerable quantity of linen and cattle is likewise disposed of.

Bergen, the capital of the country, is situated nearly in the middle of the island, and on a rising ground. Its greatest extent is from east to west. The streets are sloping and bad, the ways partly unpaved, and, in many places, almost impassable; the numerous dirty lanes, and the houses, which are mean, and in general irregularly placed, all contribute to extinguish the idea of a town; though towards the centre of the place, there is some little improvement, but still there is a total want of symmetry and beauty. Singular as it may appear, there is, with the exception of about six edifices, not another stone building in the town, not even excepting the town hall.

A considerable inconvenience to which the inhabitants are liable, is the want of fountains, in consequence of the height of the place, which renders this establishment difficult. Though in the seven years' war, several Swedish officers of the *Ingénieurs* made attempts to open one in the market-place; but the anger which they employed on the occasion happening to break, the whole business was dropped. Hence, the inhabitants are obliged to procure all their water in the environs of the town.

The population of Bergen amounts to 1574 inhabitants; and the place contains upwards of 300 houses. The town is divided into four quarters, according to which the grounds are rated. In the early part of the 17th century, it received its first charter as a town. The magistracy consists of two burgo-masters (one of whom must always be a lawyer and town-judge), two chamberlains, four councilmen, and a secretary: from this court an appeal may be made to the high court at Greifswald.

Most of the inhabitants are tradesmen and husbandmen; the higher classes, which are generally independent, living chiefly in the country. The once prevalent idea of the cheapness here, has induced many people to settle in this town which has effected a general rise in the necessary articles for life, and thrown a heavy burthen on the shoulders of the poorer classes.

The soil around the city is mostly high and sandy; but in the low lands it is superior, and well adapted to the culture of corn: the hills are planted chiefly with potatoes and culinary plants, which, at a distance, afford a pleasing appearance.

The time now hastened when I was to quit this country. On the 1st of October I accordingly departed from Bergen, and soon arrived at the small town of Garz, containing about 150 mean, close houses, many of which are still covered with straw: it is reported to be the most ancient and only town of German establishment in Rügen, having received its charter in 1377. The number of inhabitants is 1120, mostly tradespeople and husbandmen.

At noon I set off from Garz, and after proceeding a considerable way along the solitary shore, I reached a long narrow isthmus, at the extremity of which is the Glavitz ferry to the opposite village of Stalbrode, to which I was speedily conveyed; and it was with the strongest emotions that I here took leave of that blissful land, where I had lately spent so many happy days.

THE END OF TOUR THROUGH RUGEN.

TRAVELS
FROM
BUENOS AYRES,
BY POTOSI,
TO
L I M A.

WITH NOTES BY THE TRANSLATOR,

CONTAINING

TOPOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTIONS OF THE SPANISH POSSESSIONS
IN SOUTH AMERICA,

Drawn from the Last and Best Authorities.

BY

ANTHONY ZACHARIAH HELMS,

FORMERLY DIRECTOR OF THE MINES NEAR CRACOW IN POLAND,
AND LATE DIRECTOR OF THE MINES AND OF THE
PROCESS OF AMALGAMATION IN PERU.

LONDON:

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INTRODUCTION.

THE improvement which M. de Born of Vienna had introduced into metallurgy, by his new method of amalgamation, attracted in the year 1787 the attention of the court of Spain, in whose American provinces they had, from the scarcity of wood, been obliged to have recourse to a rude kind of amalgamation for separating and purifying the nobler metals.

M. d'Elhuzar, director-general of the Mexican mines, whose works prove him to be an intelligent mineralogist, was accordingly sent to Hungary to make himself master of Born's method of amalgamation, and to engage expert German miners in the Spanish service, for the purpose of restoring, with their assistance, the American gold and silver mines to their former flourishing state. M. Helms, then chief assayer of the mines and mint at Cracow, and afterwards Baron von Nordenflycht, a Swedish mineralogist, director of the mines at Miezanağora, in the district of Cracow, entered on the most advantageous terms into the Spanish service; the former as director of the smelting-houses and of the process of amalgamation, and the latter as director-general of the mines in Peru.

Accompanied by their families, a few negro servants, and a great number of German miners, they sailed from Cadiz for Buenos Ayres; and on the 29th of October, in 1789, the spring season in that part of the globe, began their journey at first in carriages, and afterwards on horseback, by the common route of the post, in an oblique direction across South America, through Tucuman and over the Cordilleras, to Potosi and Lima; an extent of way amounting, from Buenos Ayres to Potosi, to 1700 miles, and from thence, through Cusco and Guancavelica, to 1300 miles.

In Potosi the German commissioners remained until the 30th of January 1791, and during their residence endeavoured to dispel the incredible barbarism and ignorance that prevailed in the mint and mining departments there. Helms, for his part, erected a laboratory, in which he daily read lectures, accompanied with suitable experiments, to an audience composed of officers of the mint and proprietors of the mines; and fully instructed six young men in the science of metallurgy. Supported by the governor, he succeeded in exposing the ignorance of the American overseers and officers of the mines and mint; although the latter counteracted with all their might the royal commissioners, and particularly Helms, by secret cabals and the basest calumnies. In writing and in conversation they derided the Germans as arch-heretics, German Jews, and cheats; as men, in short, who, it was to be feared, would corrupt the morals of the honest miners and their overseers: and tried every means

to render them suspicious to the proprietors of the mines, fearing lest, enlightened by Helms and his associates, they should examine too narrowly into the conduct of their ignorant and roguish servants.

They even excited the Indian labourers against them, by insinuating that the foreigners had come solely for the purpose of working the mines by machinery, and would thus deprive them of the means of subsistence. In this opposition they were encouraged and joined by a numerous band of merchants in the principal cities; as Helms, in particular, spoke loudly against the enormous usury by which they oppressed the workers of the mines, and made every effort to put a stop to their rapacity.

Scarcely had Helms arrived in Lima, when, at the desire of the intendant of Guancavelica, he was ordered to proceed to that celebrated quicksilver-mine, to introduce there the Adrian furnaces. But in procuring Helms this commission, the intendant, an old creole, who by pretended patriotic projects had amassed a fortune of a million of piastres, had no other end in view but to derive a profit from furnishing the necessary building-materials, for which he received more than four times their value: and when Helms set his face against his nefarious proceedings, he had the address surreptitiously to procure an order from the viceroy to suspend the work. Vexation at the unjust treatment he here met with, threw Helms into a fever, which caused him to leave Guancavelica.

Two other commissions which he received from Lima to introduce a better method of working the

mines at Pasco and Bellavista, fifty miles from Lima, proved equally fruitless; as the viceroy absolutely refused any pecuniary assistance from the funds appropriated to the promotion of the mines, and would not permit him to raise the necessary supplies by means of a loan. All he could obtain was a commendatory epistle in praise of his zeal.

He therefore resolved to leave Peru, a land morally and physically pernicious to him—where, in the execution of the most dangerous and laborious commissions, he was obliged to act, not only as a director of the smelting-houses, but likewise as a carpenter, smith, and mason. Accordingly, in the beginning of the year 1793, he sailed from Callao, the port of Lima, on board of a register-ship; and after a passage of two months and a half, round Cape Horn, safely arrived in Cadiz. Having been obliged to spend seven months in Madrid in tedious solicitations to have the terms of his agreement fulfilled, he at last obtained a small pension for life, on which he lived lately at Vienna.

In 1798 M. Helms published an account of his travels, which is in the proper sense of the word a *Journal*: every page containing, unaltered, the remarks made and written down on the spot.

Station after station, the number of miles daily travelled and indicated; and interspersed we find remarks on what he every day had seen, and likewise extracts from the official details on the state of the mines which he had examined.

M. Helms is, however, only a miner and mineralogist. To the other parts of natural history he is a

stranger, and few things worthy of notice relative to that science are to be found in his journal. Even geographical and statistical observations occur only occasionally: but among them are many which contain valuable information, and which throw considerable light on the present state of these remote regions, with which we are yet but imperfectly acquainted.

Mineralogical and metallurgic remarks on Potosi and Peru, and on the Cordilleras, the largest and richest chain of mountains in the world, which Helms had travelled over in every direction in length and breadth, from the borders of Chili to Lima, form the bulk of his work. As few, however, would have the patience to peruse the whole of his dry mineralogical day-book, the unimportant details and repetitions relative to the contents of the mountains over which he travelled, have been abridged by the translator; at the same time that nothing useful has been omitted, and every fact relative to the general state of the country, or of the people, has been scrupulously retained.

It is to be regretted that these facts are not more numerous; but, as far as they go, their authenticity cannot be questioned; and as the last, and almost the only account of these countries, the work cannot fail to be acceptable to the public at a moment when the attention of all England has been excited towards them by the recent important conquest made by Sir Home Popham, and by the pending expedition of General Miranda. The travels of Ulloa in certain parts of this immense continent, it will be

recollected, were performed nearly seventy years ago, and perhaps no country in the world has undergone greater changes in the same interval of time, than South America.

The APPENDIX has been compiled from the best and latest authorities, and from scarce and expensive books, by the translator; and he may, without vanity, assert that it contains the fullest and the most correct account of Spanish America, which exists in any European language. He is indebted for many of his most curious facts to the valuable work on the present state of Peru, lately published by Mr. Skinner; and in defining the boundaries of the various governments, he is indebted to Mr. Arrowsmith, the geographer, for the use of the great Spanish map of South America. The work of Don Ulloa has been duly compared with later authorities; and the *Dictionario Geographico*, published by Don Alcedo, at Madrid, in 1788, a work till now wholly unknown to the English reader, has been carefully consulted. The detailed travels of Humboldt, it is well known, are not yet given to the world; but the various reports which have been published of them in his letters to his friends, have served to correct many errors, and to verify many facts in the existing accounts of those parts of South America over which he travelled.

TRAVELS

FROM

BUENOS AYRES

TO

LIMA.

ON the 29th of October 1780, we began our journey from BUENOS AYRES westward to Camacha de Maion; distant fifteen geographical miles, reckoning sixty to a degree. Buenos Ayres is situated on the south-west bank of the great river la Plata; and, according to the account which he received from the viceroy, contains from twenty-four to thirty thousand inhabitants. In 1748, regular posts were instituted from hence to Peru; post-houses were erected, and relays of horses and carriages provided*.

Seventy-three miles from the capital the traveller enters on an immense plain, by the Spaniards called Pampas, which stretches three hundred miles westward to the foot of the mountains, and about fifteen hundred miles southward towards Patagonia†. This plain is fertile, and wholly covered with very high grass; but for the most part uninhabited and destitute of trees. It is

* For full local descriptions and other particulars, see the notes in the Appendix.

† In crossing South America from Buenos Ayres to Peru, great danger arises from the savage nations who inhabit these pampas. Troops of them attack travellers; but they do not possess valour sufficient to maintain a combat, and their attacks are successful only when made by surprise, or when greatly superior in numbers.

The abundance of the necessaries of life encourages, among the lower orders, a propensity to idleness, which has given rise to another order of strollers, called *Gauderios*. Their mode of life resembles that of the *Gypsies*. They are badly clothed; their whole dress consisting only of a coarse shirt, and a worse upper garment. These articles of dress, together with horse furniture, serve them for bedding, and a saddle for a pillow. They stroll about with a kind of small guitars, to the sound of which they sing ballads.

the abode of innumerable herds of wild horses, oxen, ostriches, &c. which, under the shade of the grass, find protection from the intolerable heat of the sun. The largest tamed ox is sold for one piastre*, and a good horse may be purchased for two.

From Camada de Moron to Camada de Escobar, twenty-one geographical miles.

On the 29th of October we were obliged to encamp at night during a heavy storm; and early on the 30th of October we arrived at Escobar.

From Camada de Escobar to Camada de la Cruz, twenty-four miles.

At the former of these places I saw in the evening so great a number of luminous insects, that at first I mistook them for exhalations proceeding from the marshy ground; but found that they were a kind of glow-worms, twice as large as those of Europe. They are of an oblong shape, and of a brown colour.

From Camada de la Cruz to Arcos, eighteen miles.

Adjoining to the post-house at Arcos, I found a beautiful orchard planted with peach-trees.

From Arcos to Chacias de Ayola, twelve miles.

The magnetical needle here points exactly north.

From Chacias de Ayola to Arecive, thirty miles.

On the road between these two stations, two of our *carretillas*, or baggage-waggons, broke down. The post-house here is tolerably commodious. Near it are orchards of peach-trees, which are the only trees that grow in the pampas.

From Arecive to Pontezuelos, twelve miles.

From Pontezuelos to Arroyo de Ramallo, eighteen miles.

From Arroyo de Ramallo to Arroyo de Elmedio, fifteen miles.

From Arroyo de Elmedio to Arroyo de Pabon, fifteen miles.

From Arroyo de Pabon to Mananciales, ten miles.

As we pursued our journey late in the evening, we saw large flocks of ostriches (*Struthio Rhea* Linn.), which had come forth from the long grass to refresh themselves with water. On the following day some of our attendants rode a considerable way into the grass, and brought back about fifty eggs of these birds. The heat of the sun being very great, and each of us having put some of them into his hat, the young birds, to our no small astonishment, broke the shell and ran away into the grass, which they began to devour with as much appetite as if they had been long accustomed to such a diet. The eggs are as large as an infant's

* The piastre is 3s. 7d. English, being rather more than six to a guinea. See *Appendix*.

head of a moderate size, and the young ostriches, when hatched, are of the size of a chicken two months old.

The ostriches lay their eggs, either singly or twenty together, in nests*; and it is probable that in the day-time they leave them exposed to the rays of the sun, and sit on them only during night to protect them from the effects of the dew.

The ostriches that inhabit the pampas are of the height of a calf. Though from the shortness of their wings they are unable to fly, they run faster than the fleetest horse.

From Mananciales to Demochados, thirty miles.

From Demochados to Esquina de la Guardia, twenty-four miles.

Here there is a square fortification, mounted with two pieces of cannon, for the purpose of checking the incursions of the wild Indians, who are said sometimes to attack the weak Spanish villages in bodies of from two to three thousand men. From the testimony of the inhabitants, however, it would appear that the danger is not so great as the Spanish soldiers (*militianos*) stationed there endeavour to persuade strangers from Europe, for the purpose of giving them a high opinion of their courage and valour, of which they are suspected to possess but a small share. In this fortification there should be a guard of a captain and thirty men; but in the day-time we did not find a single sentinel. These soldiers are badly armed; some with firelocks, others with pistols, and others only with sabres or spears. As the wild Indians still retain a dread of all European weapons, and especially of fire-arms, we see no reason to reckon it a deed of uncommon heroism, if these thirty horsemen sometimes put to flight two or three thousand savages, whose weapons consist only of a sling or a rope six ells in length, with an angular stone or a piece of lead fastened to the end of it, with which they endeavour to give their enemy a blow from behind; and they are in general so expert in its use, and have such command of their horses, that they seldom miss the object aimed at.

The wild Indians have no intercourse with the civilized Indians or the Spaniards, whom they mortally hate, and are in the highest degree dirty, savage, mistrustful, and treacherous; they are strong and enterprising, but easily dismayed on the near approach of danger.

Their vices show the state of society among them to be the natural consequence of the manner in which they are treated by the Spaniards: for if the latter were more attentive to the general good of the state, and less attached to the promotion of their

* According to Molina, even from forty to sixty in one nest. See *Saggio sulla Storia Naturale del Chili*. Bologna, 1732, p. 262.

private interests, it would be easy, by mildness and by opening a free trade with them, gradually to render them, in the same manner as the civilized Indians, useful subjects of the crown. But this can be effected only by statesmen of enlarged minds, and gifted with sound political knowledge:—such may possibly exist in Spain, but are seldom met with in South America.

From Esquina de la Guardia to Cabeza del Tigre, twenty-one miles.

Cabeza del Tigre lies on the Rio Tercera: the bed of this river consists of decomposed granite.

From Cabeza del Tigre to Saladillo, twenty-four miles.

Most of the undulating heights in this neighbourhood were wholly covered with native saltpetre, as if with a hoar-frost.

From Saladillo to Barracas, nine miles.

From Barracas to Zarjon, twelve miles.

The bed of the river here consisted of indurated marl, intermixed with calcareous shells.

From Zarjon to Frailemuerto, twelve miles.

Here begins a wood which continues on a gentle ascent as far as Cordova. In this wood were only found two kinds of trees; they resemble the olive of Spain, but bear no fruit; their leaves are of a most beautiful green colour.

From Frailemuerto to Esquino de Medrano, eighteen miles.

Here the post-house and some huts of circles are situated in an open field, without any ditches or ramparts, because the savage Indians never extend their predatory incursions thus far.

From Esquina de la Guardia to Paso Ferreira, eighteen miles.

From Paso Ferreira to lo Tio Pafio, twelve miles.

Thence to Camada del Gobierno.

Thence to Impira.

We still continued to proceed in a north-west direction, along the river Tercero.

From Impira to Rio Segundo, situated on a river of the same name, fifteen miles.

The river Segundo is a continuation of the river Tercero, receiving its waters from the Peruvian promontory which begins near this place.

From Rio Segundo to Punto del Monte, thirteen miles and a half.

From Buenos Ayres, the capital, to Cordova is four hundred and sixty-eight miles.

Cordova, a neat clean town, is very pleasantly situated near a wood at the foot of a branch of the Andes. It is the seat of a

bishop, and is inhabited by 1500 Spaniards and Creoles, and 4000 Negro slaves.

A transit trade is carried on here from Buenos Ayres to Potosi. The cathedral is a very fine edifice, and the spacious market-place is adorned with buildings of considerable magnitude; the streets are likewise much cleaner than in Buenos Ayres, being paved, an improvement still wanting in the capital. We were pleasantly lodged in the late college of the Jesuits. It is a very large and massy edifice, and the usual residence of the bishop. But the see was now vacant. The heat is more intense here than at Buenos Ayres, which, from its situation on the larger river la Plata, and its vicinity to the sea, enjoys a milder temperature.

Not far from the town, in the granite mountains, are found veins of lead and copper ore which contain silver. As this ridge of mountains (composed of red and green granite) gradually becomes lower, the population increases: but at Remanso, 60 miles from Cordova, they again branch out so far from one another, that from that place to Tucuman the traveller passes through a saline plain 240 miles in length, and for the most part barren and desert, from which the mountains are seen at a distance. The whole ground is covered with a white incrustation of salt, and bears no other plants except the *salsola hali*, which here grows to the height of four yards. The decayed little town of St. Jago de Estero, is situated in this plain.

The creole, a descendant of American Spaniards, is of a brown complexion, and differs in every respect from his ancestors. Though born with a genius capable of attaining whatever ennobles humanity; yet, from an education in the highest degree neglected, he becomes lazy, licentious, and indelicate in his conversation; a hypocrite, and infected with a blind and malignant fanaticism. He tyrannizes over his slaves, but, in general, through his inordinate love of pleasure, is himself enslaved by his mulatto and black females, who rule him with despotic sway. He is in the highest degree reserved and insidious; the sport of every unmanly passion, immoderately puffed up with pride, and prepossessed against whatever is European; and, in an especial manner, of a hostile and mistrustful disposition towards the Spaniards. Under the oppressive yoke of such men the Indians have lived for centuries, and they consequently pant for the blessings of liberty.

The king of Spain has enacted several salutary laws, with a view of ameliorating the condition of the Indians; but they have either never been promulgated, or, by intrigues or artifice, are soon rendered of no avail.

The Indians are, in fact, the only industrious class of the community. To the labour of these patient drudges we are indebted for all the gold and silver brought from every part of Spanish America. No European, nor even the Negroes, are robust enough, for one year only, to resist the effects of the climate, and support the fatigues of working the mines, in the mountainous regions. Yet to these good and patient subjects their haughty masters leave, as the reward of their toil, scarcely a sufficient pittance to enable them to procure a scanty meal of potatoes and maize boiled in water.

The following list of the mines or pits, in the viceroyalty of la Plata, or Buenos Ayres, was extracted from the records of the chancery.

Names of the Provinces.				Gold	Silver	Copper	Iron	Lead
				Mines.				
Tucuman	-	-	-	2	1	2	-	2
Mendoza a Chili	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Atacama	-	-	-	2	2	1	-	1
Tipez	} province of Potosi	{	-	2	1	1	-	1
Porco			-	1	2	1	-	-
Caranges	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	-
Pacages or Berenguela	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Chucuyto	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Paucacolla, city of Puno	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tanpa	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
Montevideo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Chicas or Tarifa	-	-	-	1	5	-	-	1
Cochabamba	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
Zicazica	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Lavicaya	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
Omasujos	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
Avangato	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
Carabaya	-	-	-	2	1	-	-	-
Potosi	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Chayanva	-	-	-	2	3	1	1	1
Mizque	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Paria	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1

In the neighbourhood of Cordova there is a great scarcity of water for the mines and the purifying of the ores.

From Cordova, we pursued our journey northward, along the foot of the anterior ridge of the Andes, to Noria, twenty-one miles.

From Noria to Sinsacate, fifteen miles.

From Sinsacate to Totoral, eighteen miles.

From Totoral to San Antonio, fifteen miles.

From San Antonio to Coral de Baranca, fifteen miles.

The direction of that ridge of mountains is from south to north, and it here begins to rise gradually to a considerable height. In the valleys I first saw the American palm, which forms one of their chief ornaments.

From Coral de Baranca to San Pedro, twelve miles.

From San Pedro to Durazno, twelve miles.

The mountains continue to be composed of red and green granite, and contain veins of corneous silver ore.

From Durazno, we passed through a broad and pleasing valley to Chamar ó Cachi, fifteen miles.

From Chamar to Pontezuelo, twenty-seven miles.

From Pontezuelo to Remanso, twenty-four miles.

From Remanso to Yuncha, ninety miles.

From Yuncha to Silipica, thirty-three miles.

From Silipica to San Jago de Estero, thirty-three miles.

San Jago, situated on the river of the same name, is a small town, which has fallen into decay, in consequence of the trade which it once enjoyed having been diverted into other channels.

From the great declivity and depth of the valleys of San Jago the heat is almost intolerable, especially when the wind blows from the north.

From San Jago de Estero to San Antonio, eighteen miles.

From San Antonio to Chachilla, twenty-four miles.

From Chachilla to Vmara, twenty-four miles; and during fifteen miles of our route we passed and repassed the river St. Jago in all directions. In January, however, when the snow begins to melt on the mountains of Potosi, this river swells so as to become dangerous to travellers.

From Vmara to Palmas, eighteen miles.

From Palmas to Talacacha, eighteen miles.

From Talacacha to Tucuman, twenty-four miles.

Tucuman, a pleasant little town, which is surrounded by groves of citron, orange, fig, and pomegranate trees, lies four hundred and fifty miles from Cordova, and seven hundred from Potosi. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains three monasteries: the inhabitants are wealthy, and might derive great profits from working gold and silver mines; as, immediately after passing this place, the whole ridge of mountains contain the precious metals in abundance. But the Negro slaves, who are here employed in mining, and their overseers are so ignorant, that they have not even an idea of the advantages arising from the use of a windlass, and carry out the ore in sacks upon their shoulders: and this we found in the sequel to be the practice at Potosi, and in the whole kingdom of Peru.

During the journey to Tucuman, we found the mountains composed of primitive granite, but as we proceeded, the granite

became intermixed with argillaceous slate of various colours; that, however, which chiefly predominates in the Cordilleras, is of a bluish cast, as far at least as we had an opportunity of examining them. Strata of limestone, and large masses of ferruginous sandstone, are in many places superincumbent on the argillaceous slate. We likewise found on the road, coal, gypsum, and rock-salt; the last even on the summits of the most elevated ridges.

From Tucuman to Tapia, twenty-one miles.

From Tapia to Duralde, twenty-four miles.

Duralde is situated on a mountain torrent of the same name. On account of the badness of the road, we did not arrive here till late at night on the 14th of December.

From Duralde to Paso del Pescado, eighteen miles.

Twelve miles from Pescado lies Trinca, a small pleasant little town with a church, on a mountain torrent of the same name. The road continued to pass through thick woods, which, however, contain very few large trees.

From Paso del Pescado to Arenal, thirty-seven miles.

From Arenal to Rosario, fifteen miles.

From Rosario to Concha, twenty miles.

The main ridge of mountains begins to rise here considerably. In the bed of the river Rosario we found blue argillaceous slate, of which the mountains are chiefly composed. The woods are thicker, and the trees of a more vigorous growth.

From Concha to Rodeo de Tala, twenty-four miles.

From Rodeo de Tala to Pasage, on the river of the same name, twenty-four miles.

About seven miles from Tala we passed the dry bed of a river, the southern bank of which was incrustated with a white substance, in taste and shape resembling common culinary salt; and from various other indications, we were led to conclude that there are large beds of fossil salt in this part of the country.

From Pasage to Siemage, thirty miles.

From Siemage to Cobos, twenty-one miles.

From Cobos to Salta, twenty-seven miles.

The town of Salta is situated on the river Arias, in $64^{\circ} 45'$ of west longitude. It is divided into four principal streets, very irregular, but wider than those of Cordova. The market place (*Plaza Mayor*) is a regular and large square, on the west side of which stands the beautiful town-house, and on the opposite side the cathedral. It is the residence of the governor-intendant, and of the administration of the province of Tucuman. Besides the cathedral, there are seven churches and monastic establishments. There are about 600 Spanish families here; and the whole population, including creoles and slaves, is estimated to

amount to 9000 souls. The inhabitants, who carry on a considerable transit trade with Potosi, Peru, and Chili, are richer and more polished than those of Cordova and Tucuman.

Here terminated the less elevated ridges and promontories: and we now prosecuted our journey over the Cordilleras, properly so called, which are rich in various plants, and whose snow-capt summits are lost in the clouds.

At Salta we changed our carriages for saddle mules, and thence pursued our way over the highest chain of mountains on the globe, and on roads the most wretched and fatiguing, eighteen hundred miles to Lima. It was fortunate for us that we had entered upon this dangerous journey at the most proper and favourable season of the year; as in our progress across the Cordilleras we were obliged to ford a number of rapid rivers and torrents (some of them even thirty different times). In these torrents, which often suddenly swell during summer, a great number of travellers perish. In a few hours we exchanged the very intense summer-heat in the valleys for the piercing cold of the snowy summit of the mountain—a transition that soon undermines the health of the most robust European. A hectic fever attacks him; or he is seized with the cramp, rheumatism, and nervous melancholy.

Immediately behind Salta, the woods which till then had covered the less elevated ridges, cease to embellish the landscape:—but the traveller is no longer incommoded by an almost incredible multitude of locusts, crickets, singing-toads, frogs, serpents, crocodiles, and mosquitoes.

The ants are likewise very numerous and troublesome; their bite, and the corrosive fluid which they discharge when irritated, causing as painful symptoms as the sting of the mosquito.

The ill regulated, dirty post-houses swarm with bugs, fleas, and other vermin; and we were frequently obliged to quench our thirst with nauseous fetid water, or to breathe air impregnated with the noxious effluvia of putrid carcasses. But the inquisitive traveller, in the pursuit of knowledge, braves danger, fatigue, and privations of every kind, while his mind is gratified by the acquisition of new ideas, or the contemplation of the wonders of nature.

The tiger is the fiercest and most dangerous of all the beasts of prey found in this country. The South American lion, I was informed, far surpasses the tiger in strength and courage, though not larger than a middle-sized dog: in other respects, however, it perfectly resembles the African lion.

There are no domestic bees reared in hives in South America; and those which are wild do not construct their nests in the hollow trunks of trees, as in Europe, but fix them in a very cu-

rious manner on the branches. These nets form an oval ball of wax, about the size of an ox's bladder; at its apex is the opening through which the insect enters, and within are cells full of the purest honey. Owing to the heat of the climate, the inflammable parts of the external shell of wax gradually drip away, and only the earthy particles remain.

From Salta to Caldera, eighteen miles.

From Caldera to Buena Voluntad, seventeen miles.

From Buena Voluntad to Jujui, six miles and a half.

Jujui is a small town containing about three thousand inhabitants, who carry on some trade with Potosí; they might derive great advantage from the rich ores in the neighbourhood: but here, as well as at Tucuman and Salta, they have neither enterprise nor skill to make a proper use of the gifts which nature has bestowed with a liberal hand on these interesting regions.

From Jujui to Bolcan, twenty-seven miles.

The river Bolcan is the largest of the mountain torrents we passed since we left Jujui. The ascent became circuitous, and more gradual.

From Bolcan to Los Ormillos, twenty-seven miles.

From Los Ormillos to Guacatera, eighteen miles.

As hitherto we had passed over few mountains, and proceeded along the valleys, we crossed the Jujui no less than thirty times in one day; which a month later would have been attended with danger, as this rapid river is at that season much swollen with rain, and the melting of the snow on the mountains.

From Guacatera to Humaguaca, eighteen miles.

A mile from the village of Humaguaca, when we had almost reached the highest part of the mountains, I again met with indications of beds of salt.

Guacatera is a small Indian town, governed by an Indian judge or alcade. It has a church and a neat chapel on an adjoining hill.

The converted Indians, who are styled *Fideles*, in contradistinction to the savages, whom they call *Barbares*, *Infideles*, or *Bravos*, are of a very obedient and patient disposition; but, from the abject state to which they are reduced, and the oppression of the sub-delegates, they are very timid and suspicious. If we may judge of their character from that of the wild Indians, it seems not improbable, that if they enjoyed a better education, and milder treatment, they would become one of the best nations on earth; for in their intercourse among themselves, they give strong proofs of humanity and a love of justice, and betray less selfishness and less pride than the Creoles; they also evince a quick sense of right and wrong. Their colour resembles dark bronze; they have an agreeable physiognomy, and

muscular limbs; they are of a middle stature, and endued with an excellent understanding, but are rather of a pensive and melancholy, than lively disposition. The Indians being esteemed the most laborious and diligent of the various classes of men found here, such as Spaniards, Creoles, Mulattoes, Samboes, Negroes, are employed through the greatest part of South America in mining, tending flocks, in cultivating the fields; and more especially as domestic servants; as in the mountains or mine country, the Negroes, like the Europeans, cannot endure the daily alternations of heat and cold; but become sickly, and soon die an untimely death.

From Humaguaca to Cueba, twenty-four miles.

From Cueba to Los Colorados, eighteen miles.

Mountains so irregular and broken as this part of the Cordilleras, and with such various alternations of their component parts, we had seen neither in Hungary, Saxony, nor in the Pyrenees. In no place does a revolution of nature appear to have been so general as in South America; of which the traces are every where discoverable.

One hundred and forty miles beyond Jujui, the traveller reaches the highest ridge of the Cordilleras; which is the favourite haunt of the celebrated sheep (named *Lama* or *Guanaco*, and by the Indians, *Huanacos*,) which feeds on moss, is easily tamed, and used as a beast of burthen. This animal, as likewise the *Vicuna*, is found only on the summits of hills covered with snow, and in the coldest mountainous regions, where they rove about in numerous herds.

I likewise saw here the American wild cat, which is not much larger than our domestic cats: its fur is excellent, and its flesh is esteemed a delicacy by the Creoles and Indians.

From Cangrejos to Guayaca, twenty-seven miles.

From Guayaca to Mojos, twenty-one miles.

The Indian town Mojos formerly belonged to Peru, and was the border-town towards the kingdom of La Plata, or Buenos Ayres. But in a recent division, the southern provinces of Peru, viz. Atacama, Potosi, Caranges, and others, have been added to the kingdom of La Plata, whose limits were extended four hundred and fifty miles further, to Santa Rosa. In the argillaceous-slaty mountains around Mojos, we found a great many veins of quartz, containing gold, yellow copper-ore, lead-ore, and iron-spath. The terminations of these veins appear above ground; but few of them are worked. There is likewise near that town a considerable stratum of magnetical iron-sand, full of particles of gold, some of which are as large as a quarter of a ducat: but of this gold the American gains but a small proportion, as he washes away into the stream all the finer par-

ticles, which are less than half the bigness of a lentil. Similar alluvial layers, containing gold, and resting on the base of argillaceous slate, occur till within a short distance of Potosi, and gold is washed from them, especially at the little town of St Jago de Cotagoita, ninety miles from Mojos, and as many from Potosi.

From Mojos to Sulipacha, twenty-four miles.

From Sulipacha to Mojara, twenty-four miles.

From Mojara to Bamada, eighteen miles.

From Bamada to San Jago de Cotagoita, twenty-four miles.

From San Jago de Cotagoita to Escobar, twelve miles.

From Escobar to Gunbe, eighteen miles.

From Gunbe to Zurupalca, eighteen miles.

After passing a high mountain, we descended towards Rio Grande, a large mountain-torrent, which we were obliged to cross more than fifty times in one day.

From Zurupalca to Caiza, eighteen miles.

At Caiza, one hundred and forty-two miles from Potosi, are found, in a hot spring, impregnated with hepatic gas, small pieces of brimstone, and a friable clay full of crystals of allum; from which we may infer, that the water derives its peculiar properties from a stratum of burning sulphur in the aluminous slate, from which it bursts forth. There are similar hepatic springs twelve miles north of Potosi, and at Churin, one hundred and fourteen miles to the north-east of Lima.

From Caiza to Potosi, thirty-six miles.

This was the most fatiguing and disagreeable post during our whole journey, having been exposed till ten at night to heavy rain, and often obliged to wade knee-deep in the bed of the Rio Grande and from the height of this tract of country, the air was most piercingly cold.

Here, on the highest plains, the water from the snowy summits of the mountain is collected, till forcing a passage through the clefts, and forming several cataacts, it flows into the Rio Grande.

Twelve miles from Potosi the ridge begins to decline to the north, so that a considerable river flows in that direction, while the Rio Grande runs towards the south.

It deserves to be remarked, with respect to the great chain of mountains stretching from Tucuman to Potosi, that till within eighteen miles of the latter place, where the Rio Grande takes its rise on the highest part of the mountain, the valleys in many places produce small trees and bushes, but further towards Potosi they are entirely destitute of wood, and on the high shelves and declivities nothing grows but patches of green spongy moss,

which serves for food to the lamas, as likewise to sheep, asses, and mules.

Brushwood and charcoal for fuel must therefore be brought from a distance of from thirty to sixty miles, and larger trees fit for building even from Tucuman, being dragged across the mountains by the hands of men.

A beam of timber sixteen inches square, and thirty-four feet in length, costs at Potosi two hundred pounds.

It in a particular manner excited my astonishment here to find the highest snow-capt mountains within nine miles from Potosi, covered with a pretty thick stratum of granitic stones, round by the action of water.

How could these masses of granite be deposited here, as there is a continual descent to Tucuman, where the granitic ridge ends, and from Tucuman to Potosi it consists of simple argillaceous schistus?

Have they been rolled hither by a general deluge, or some later partial revolution of nature?

The solution of this question I shall leave to systematic naturalists and geologists.

The celebrated city of Potosi is situated in the midst of the most elevated range of the Andes, whose summits, at the distance of nine miles to the south, are covered with snow. It contains about one hundred thousand inhabitants, including slaves. The churches are very rich in silver utensils, and the clergy are subject to the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Chuquisca, which is the seat of the ecclesiastical tribunal for the whole kingdom of La Plata, and of an university. The militia consists of only five hundred men, of a most wretched appearance, without uniforms, and without cannon; and of whom one-half parade with wooden muskets.

The mountain Potosi, at whose foot the city is built, resembles a sugar-loaf, it is almost eighteen miles in circumference, and chiefly composed of a yellow very firm argillaceous slate, full of veins of ferruginous quartz, in which silver-ore and sometimes brittle vitreous ore are found interspersed.

These rude ores are there called *paco ores*, and from experiments with more than three hundred specimens, I found they contain, on an average, from six to eight ounces of silver in every *caxon*, or fifty hundred weight. They sometimes likewise meet with solid silver-ore, especially with grayish brown ore, each *caxon* of which yields twenty marks of silver. Above three hundred mines or pits are worked; but all of them irregularly, and as if it were merely for plunder few of them therefore penetrate to a greater depth than about seventy yards.

A main canal which had been begun in 1779, and in the

course of nine years had, at an incredible expence, been carried on two miles in length, was even at its mouth much too high, and yet had been made to slope one yard in every thirty-two; so that it could not come deep enough into many of the pits to free them from water.

The conduit intersects eight new lodes running in a direction nearly from north to south; the best of them is galena, about two feet deep, and was said to yield eight marks of silver in fifty hundred weight of ore. The rest consist of spathose blend, with gray silver ore and yellow copper ore.

On the opposite side we inspected another old conduit, which about a hundred years ago led to many rich veins of red and gray silver ore. But they had no proper machinery; the pits became filled with water: we found all along the bottom of the conduit good red and other silver ores, mixed with other materials, which by proper management might yield the proprietors a considerable quantity of metal: but it would be still more to their advantage if they employed skilful men to erect machinery for the purpose of clearing the bottom of the mines from water. The direction of this as well as the large conduit is nearly from east to west.

Still greater, if possible, was the ignorance of the directors of the smelting-houses and refining-works at Potosi: by their method of amalgamation they were scarcely able to gain two-thirds of the silver contained in the *paco-ore*; and for every mark of pure silver gained, destroyed one, and frequently two, marks of quicksilver. Indeed all the operations at the mines of Potosi, the stamping, sifting, washing, quickening, and roasting the ore, are conducted in so slovenly, wasteful, and unscientific a manner, that to compare the excellent method of amalgamation invented by Baron Born, and practised in Europe, with the barbarous process used by these Indians and Spaniards, would be an insult to the understanding of my readers.

The tools of the Indian miner are very badly contrived, and unwieldy. The hammer, which is a square piece of lead of twenty pounds weight, exhausts his strength; the iron, a foot and a half long, is a great deal too inconvenient, and in some narrow places cannot be made use of. The thick tallow candles wound round with wool vitiate the air.

In the royal mint at Potosi, where from five hundred and fifty thousand to six hundred thousand marks of silver, and about two thousand marks of gold, are annually coined, affairs were not better conducted. Every hundred weight of refined copper, used for alloy in the gold and silver coin, cost the king 35*l*. through the gross ignorance of the overseers of the work, who spent a whole month in roasting and calcining it, and frequently

rendered it quite unfit for the purpose. I was therefore ordered by the governor, Don Fr. de Paulo Sanz, to introduce a process founded on sound principles.

For this purpose, as no chemico-metallurgic laboratory existed here, I erected one, with all the necessary apparatus, in one of the largest rooms of the mint, and in the presence of the governor and all the persons belonging to the mint-department, proved by experiment, that it might be brought to a greater degree of fineness in four hours and a half, and at less than one-twentieth part of the expence.

These various evils the German commissioners endeavoured as much as possible to remove. Mr. Welher, one of my colleagues, dug two deep conduits (to free the mines from water) in the mountain of Potosi; Baron von Nordenflycht erected proper machinery; amalgamation works, according to Baron Born's plan, were erected under my superintendence, and lessons in metallurgy were given by me to six pupils. As soon as the water in the pits can be got under, the mines of Potosi will be in a more flourishing condition than ever. However, the total want of timber on this naked ridge of mountains very much retards the work.

The revenue to the king from the mines in the kingdom of La Plata is said to amount annually to four millions and a half of piastres: and if they possessed more knowledge and economy, it might easily be doubled. If all the veins of ore, &c. were sought for, and wrought with but moderate skill and diligence, this kingdom alone might yield every year twenty, and even thirty, millions of piastres.

From Buenos Ayres to Potosi, one thousand six hundred and seventeen geographical miles.

As Baron Nordenflycht was obliged to stay some time longer at Potosi, to superintend the finishing of the machinery for the mines, I set out for Lima on the 30th of January, 1790, with the greater part of our German miners, and travelled to Jocala, nine miles.

Twelve miles to the south of Potosi there is a hot sulphureous bath, with a boiling hot spring. Near it is a village, whither the invalid Potosians resort, for the recovery of their health. The waters possess the same qualities and virtues as the springs near Caiza.

Argillaceous slate is here, likewise, the chief component part of the mountain, with a stratum of sand-stone upon it.

Further on we again find on both sides alluvial hills, with rounded masses of granite, extremely bad roads, and the mountain very much weather-beaten and broken.

From Jocala to La Lenna, eighteen miles.

Not far from Jocala a mass of granite, many miles in length, rises in huge weather-beaten rocks, which threaten every moment to roll down the precipices. At Lenna the granite masses are succeeded by a stratum of deep red rough-grained sand-stone.

From La Lenna to Las Lagumillas, fifteen miles.

We now entered a valley, which, with little variation, extends above six hundred miles to Cusco.

From Tolapalca to Guilcapuzico, twelve miles.

Thence to Ancacato, fifteen miles.

Here again argillaceous slate, interspersed with masses of granite, appears.

From Ancacato to Las Pennas, twelve miles.

A layer of red sand-stone on the substratum of argillaceous slate. The soil becomes more fruitful, and population and the number of villages increase.

From Pennas to Condor-Apacheta, fifteen miles.

The sand-stone succeeded by argillaceous slate, mostly covered with thin moss.

From Condor-Apacheta to La Venta de en Medio, fifteen miles.

From La Venta de en Medio to Oruro, twenty-seven miles.

The valley becomes more even and agreeable.

Four miles from Oruro it is covered with a saline incrustation, mixed with saltpetre.

Oruro, a town in this valley, was formerly the residence of wealthy capitalists, who derived their riches from the mines in the adjacent ridge of mountains. But in the dreadful insurrection of the Christian Indians of La Plata and Peru, in the year 1779, here, as in most other towns of these extensive kingdoms, the greatest and richest part of the Spaniards were murdered, and the town plundered and almost totally destroyed. Those who escaped, and had concealed their money and valuable effects in the monasteries, mostly emigrated to Europe*. And hence the mines here are in a state of decay and neglect, from the want of pecuniary resources. Intelligent miners might certainly derive great profit from working these mines: one active individual, by the old Potosi mode of amalgamation, has obtained weekly a clear gain of about 80*l.* from the residuum formerly thrown away; and in future his profits will be still more considerable, as one of my colleagues has made for him a machine with eight casks, by the use of which he will no longer be subject to such losses of quicksilver, which amounted to about half of the quantity employed.

* Mr. Helms says nothing further concerning this insurrection, of which a circumstantial account would have been highly interesting.

From Oruro to Caracollo, twenty-seven miles.

The summits of the ridge, the direction of which is still northerly, continue to be covered with snow.

Caracollo to Panduro, fifteen miles.

From Panduro to Sicasca, twenty-four miles.

Near the river the valley is very fertile.

From Sicasca to Tambillo, twelve miles.

Two miles from the post-station we found two important amalgamation-works belonging to the Indians, which, from the richness of the ore, are very productive.

From Tambillo to Ayoayo, twelve miles.

Near Ayoayo I found the ground strewed with small shining pure quartzose crystals, partly consisting of half six-sided pyramids of half the size of a lentil. The mountains to the west contain many veins of this rich quartz.

From Ayoayo to Calamarca, fifteen miles.

The same kind of brilliant quartzose crystals, among which small topazes are sometimes found.

From Calamarca to Ventilla, eighteen miles.

From Ventilla to La Paz, twelve miles.

The rich town of La Paz likewise suffered considerably through the revolt of the Indians; but still is said to contain four thousand hearths, and twenty thousand inhabitants, whose chief source of opulence is the *cora*, or tea of Paraguay, as it is called—a greenish, tart herb, which the Indians chew mixed with calcined lime. This article is as indispensable to them as tobacco is to our seamen; and the town of La Paz carries on a lucrative trade with it to the extent of two hundred thousand piastres annually.

The mountain at whose foot La Paz is built, is the highest Cordillera in this part of the country, and covered with everlasting snow.

This mountain, and the whole ridge as far as Sicasca, where the Indians collect gold by washing, abounds in rich gold ore; and when, about eighty years ago, a projecting part of it tumbled down, they severed from the stone lumps of pure gold weighing from two to fifty pounds. Even now, in the layers of sand, &c. washed from the mountain by the rain-water, pieces of pure gold are found, some of which weigh an ounce. From the ignorance, however, of the inhabitants, most of these treasures lie totally neglected.

There are likewise in the argillaceous slate many veins of rich silver-ore.

The province of Tiupani, which is one hundred and twenty miles from La Paz, is said to abound more with gold than even the latter.

From La Paz to La Laja, eighteen miles.

From La Laja to Tiaguanaco, twenty-one miles.

There is upon the whole an ascent from Potosi to this place, and further to Puno, which is the highest point of the Cordilleras of the kingdom of La Plata.

Here likewise the west side of the mountains consists of fine argillaceous slate, and the Indians formerly found much rich ore in it.

From Tiaguanaco to Guaqui, twelve miles.

Here begins the large lake of Tituaca, the first I had seen in South America; and on whose western shore rise the highest Cordilleras of the kingdom of La Plata. Since we left Buenos Ayres and the river de la Plata, we had not passed through so picturesque a country as that bordering on this lake; and were charmed with the alternation of hills and dales, intermixed with the richest meadows, depastured by numerous herds of cattle, mules, horses, and sheep.

From Guaqui to Zepita, twenty one miles.

From Zepita to Chesta, twelve miles.

From Chesta to Pomata, which has a church, and is pleasantly situated, nine miles.

From Pomata to Juli, twelve miles.

We still continued to travel for the most part along the shore of the lake, which we were told is eighty miles in length, and in some parts equally broad.

From Pomata to Juli, a small populous Indian town, with four rich churches, which is governed by an Indian governor (cazica,) and an Indian judge (alkalde), twelve miles.

From Juli to Uabe, (or Uave) fifteen miles.

At the distance of six miles from Uave, the road diverges from the lake, along the shore of which we had hitherto been travelling with much inconvenience and fatigue, during the rainy season: but, just before we arrived at the post-house, we were ferried over an arm of it, about one hundred and twenty feet in breadth, in an Indian canoe, made in a very neat manner of a kind of reed and grass, on which timid people might be afraid to trust themselves, as they are only one ell and a half in breadth, and quite flat like a raft.

From Uave to Acora, fifteen miles.

From Acora to Chucuito, nine miles.

The mountains contain many rich veins of gold and silver ore.

From Chucuito to Puno, the chief town of the province of the same name, nine miles.

Puno suffered likewise by the above-mentioned insurrection. The silver ores in the neighbourhood are very rich; but the mines are filled with water, and the proprietors have neither the capital nor the skill requisite for draining them.

From Chucuito to Caracato, twenty-four miles.

From Caracato to Calapuja, twenty-one miles.

The ores obtained from a soft porphyritic ridge, extending eighteen miles, are very rich, yielding about ten marks of silver per cwt.

From Calapuja to Pucara, twenty-four miles.

From Pucara to Aguaviri, fifteen miles.

From Aguaviri to Santa Rosa, eighteen miles.

From Santa Rosa to Larucachi, twenty-seven miles.

The ridge of Cordilleras, whose summits are covered with eternal snow, extends far beyond Larucachi. From the badness of the roads, the continual rain, and the dreadful storms of thunder and hail, travelling over the Cordilleras at this season of the year, is attended with almost intolerable hardships. The proper time for such a journey is during the months of March, April, May, June, and July.

During the three months of the rainy season among the mountains, the traveller may proceed along the sea-shore, under a serene sky, and without a single drop of rain, as far as Lima; but, on the contrary, he there is exposed to excessive heat, troublesome vermin, and dangerous fevers.

From Larucachi to Concha, eighteen miles.

The valley becomes wider, and we were obliged frequently to ford a large rapid river. Three miles from Larucachi lies a neat Indian town called Cichani, the residence of Colonel Manuel Vilalta, governor of Tinta, a very obliging polite gentleman, who gave us a very friendly reception. The colonel, who has been many years engaged in the working of mines in the neighbourhood, listened with great attention to the improvements I suggested for obtaining the metal from the ore.

From Cacha to Chiacupi, twelve miles.

The country becomes more pleasant, fertile, and populous. We passed the broadest arm of the river on a flying bridge, made of basket-work.

From Chiacupi to Quinquijani, fifteen miles.

From Quinquijani to Hurcos, twelve miles.

From Hurcos to Oropeza, nine miles.

The road begins gradually to ascend again, and diverge from the large river which had accompanied us along the valley from Purta, but which now takes another direction towards the south.

From Oropeza to Cusco, formerly the capital of Peru, and the residence of the Incas, twelve miles.

Cusco, like most of the other large cities of Spanish America, is built in the Gothic style. The population is considerable; but no one could give me an exact statement of the number of inhabitants. A governor and a commander of the regular troops and militia reside here. In the palace of the former, a court of

appeal decides upon all the law-suits and processes in the province.

The cathedral is a fine stone building in the modern style, and contains many pictures and rich ornaments.

Although the mountains in the neighbourhood of Cusco contain many rich metallic ores, yet only one person, a French merchant of the name of Grace, is engaged in mining; on which he has already spent, without any advantage, in works after the Indian method, about 5000*l*. He seemed inclined to adopt our new mode of amalgamation; and if his capital should be sufficient to enable him to put that purpose in execution, he will, no doubt, soon realize a large fortune.

From Cusco to Zurito, twenty-one miles.

From Zurito to Limatambo, eighteen miles.

From Limatambo to Canetas, twelve miles.

The base of argillaceous slate is covered with an affluvial super-stratum, which consists of marble, gypsum, lime-stone, sand, a large quantity of rock-salt, and of fragments of porphyry, &c. in which pure silver and rich silver ores occur in abundance. There are few instances in Europe of such mountains so generally abounding with the precious metals, or their ores, as in this quarter of the globe. The whole ridge appears to be full of affluvial veins of heavy silver ores, in which pieces of pure silver, solid copper, and lead-ore, occur, intermixed with a great quantity of white silver ore, and capillary vugn-silver. Thirty-six miles before we reach Guancavelica, behind Paucos, lie mountains of weather-beaten argillaceous slate, mixed with sand. The sections of these mountains consist entirely of separate more or less sharp-pointed pyramids of a flesh-coloured sand-stone.

The ridge of mountains covered with snow, over which the road to the Pacific Ocean passes, consists of simple sand-stone, through which metallic veins, in some places with quartz or feldspath, in others with steatite and shoenl, &c. openly appear. On the contrary, the chain of mountains to the north of Guamanga and Guancavelica is said to consist, to the extent of one hundred miles, of simple lime-stone, and equally abounds with metallic ores, especially in the province of Tarma.

From Canetas to Carahuasi, eighteen miles.

We were again obliged to pass a river on a flying-bridge. This river is much more rapid and broad than that mentioned above: near Carahuasi it turns off at an angle towards the east, till it enters the kingdom of Cuzaquin, and is said to run through a space of three thousand miles. This, however, is doubtful: and the more probable opinion is, that it falls into the Marañon.

About sixty miles to the west of Carahuasi some gold mines

are worked; and at Carahuasi, two persons extract silver from a horizontal stratum of ore.

From Avancay to Cochacajas, eighteen miles.

From Cochacajas to Pincos, eighteen miles.

Soon after we left this village, and ascended by a zig-zag road for eight miles, on one of the highest shelves of the highest Cordilleras; and descended with the greatest danger on the other side to the river, which we crossed, and arrived at Pincos, after having been exposed during seven hours to incessant rain: truly pitiable is the lot of the poor traveller who is obliged, during this season of the year, to pursue his journey by such steep and slippery roads, and over almost impassable mountains. Even the most thoughtless free-thinker, who denies the existence of a Providence, would here be obliged to confess, that an almighty and benignant Power evidently watches over the daring steps of mortals; otherwise, both men and beasts would inevitably perish.

Sixty miles westward from Pincos, in the province of Almaray, there are rich veins of gold ore in quartz; and gold is obtained by washing. Some of the Indians here, notwithstanding the rude unskilful process used by them, obtain monthly as much as is worth from nine to eleven hundred pounds, which they send to Lima in exchange for piastres. In this, as indeed in most of the provinces of the kingdom, rich veins of silver and other metallic ores occur, of which no use is made.

From Pincos to Andaguaylas, eighteen miles.

Twenty-one miles beyond the latter place, there is a silver-mine, which was found to yield one hundred marks of silver for every hundred pounds of ore. This mine, however, which is called Santa Maria, has long been full of water.

From Andagnaylas to Uripa, thirty miles.

From Uripa to Tambo de Ochos, thirty-six miles.

Soon after leaving the Uripa, we again climbed to the summit of a vast ridge composed of horizontal strata, and we consumed as much time in the descent towards a rapid river, with a dangerous Indian hanging-bridge, which is about 90 feet ~~long~~ and twenty feet in length, and suspended by badly-made hempen ropes. Here we were obliged to stop till the bridge was repaired, and pass the night in a dark mountain cave; where, besides suffering from excessive heat, we were so dreadfully stung by musquitoes, that we scarcely knew one another the next morning.

We had before become acquainted with this little blood thirsty insect in the province of Tucuman: its sting is much more painful than that of the European knat; it leaves a caustic fluid, which causes the flesh to swell, if the sufferer scratches the part affected; and the itching lasts more than eight days.

The musquitoes are not larger than a flea, but winged, and exactly resembling a young fly. They are very numerous in all the hot low districts of this country.

From Ocros to Congallo, eighteen miles.

From Congallo to the town of Guamanga, the residence of the governor, eighteen miles.

In this district, they dig from a horizontal bed silver ore; fifty hundred weight of which are said to yield five hundred marks of silver. The ore, as appears from the specimen of it in my possession, contains some virgin silver.

But this mine, like most of the rich mines of Peru, is overflowed. The proprietor, however, endeavours to free it as much as possible from water, by means of common pumps.

From Guamanga to Guanta, eighteen miles.

From Guanta to Paucos, thirty miles.

From Paucos to Paucara, twelve miles.

From Paucara to Guancavelica, twenty-four miles.

Behind Guancavelica, the mountains gradually become composed of less various materials, and at last consist only of simple sand-stone, with layers of mail, lime-stone, and spath; or of simple lime-stone: they continue, however, equally rich in gold, silver, quick-silver, rock-salt, &c.

In short, so much doth rich ores abound here, that the mines, if worked with a moderate industry and knowledge of metallurgy, might yield considerably more than the quantity necessary for the supply of the whole world; and it is perhaps a fortunate circumstance, that the ignorance of the miners and the oppressive measures of the Spanish government have prevented more from being drawn from this inexhaustible source than actually has been obtained, and from general experience appears to be required, as a circulating medium in commerce and for other purposes: otherwise, gold and silver must long ago have been depreciated to an inconvenient degree. Indeed, this effect would be produced by the introduction of the fifty or more millions of piastres, that are annually brought to Europe from the Spanish colonies in America, were it not counterbalanced by the immense exportations of silver to China. As none ever finds its way back, it has been conjectured that these treasures are buried by the avaricious Chinese.

The royal mine-town Guancavelica was formerly celebrated on account of its rich quicksilver-mine. But, as this mine was not worked in a proper and regular manner, the pit fell in; and they now dig only in places less abounding with ore; which annually yield about fifteen hundred cwt. of quicksilver: but owing to the wretched manner in which the mines and smelting furnaces are conducted, each hundred of quicksilver costs one hundred and

— sixty-six piastres. The king sells it to the proprietors of the gold and silver mines at the rate of seventy-three piastres; and annually loses by his traffic to the amount of two hundred thousand piastres.

The vein of cinnabar was eighty Spanish clls in extent; and the cinnabar was found partly solid and crystallised with galena, calcareous spath, ponderous spath, quartz, manganese, arsenic, &c.; partly intersprinkled in a sand-stone of a very fine grain, or in lime-stone.

So long back as two hundred years ago, the mine was worked with great profit by mining companies, and is said to have been sunk six hundred fathoms deep.

A thick stratum of red arsenic and yellow orpiment, which lay contiguous to the mass of quicksilver-ore, was by the ignorant superintendent taken for cinnabar, and some hundreds of the workmen perished in the operation of smelting it. For extracting the quicksilver from the cinnabar they employ the ill-contrived old Spanish Almadena furnace, which is heated from below with mountain-straw. There are seventy-five such furnaces here instead of which I proposed to construct sixteen on the plan of those of Idria; but was prevented by the viceroy from executing this purpose.

From Guancavelica to Cotay, thirty miles.

The road ascends towards the snow-covered Cordilleras, and in consequence the air is so cold, that the traveller may wear furs without any inconvenience.

Here we again met with large flocks of lamas. The biscache, a small animal resembling in shape the European rabbit, likewise inhabits these mountains. its fur is uncommonly soft and beautiful. There are likewise large flocks of the well known Vicuña sheep.

From Cotay to 'Turpo, eighteen miles.

We continued to climb over the snowy summits of the highest ridge since we left Potosi. The cold was more intense than yesterday, and affected me more sensibly than the ~~severe~~ ^{severe} of Germany, although it be still summer here in the month of March.

From 'Turpo to Vinnas, twenty-four miles.

Having passed, amidst severe frost and snow, the highest Cordilleras of this part of the country, we descended by a very steep road to Vinnas, situated in a narrow valley. During this day's journey, we observed extraordinary large flocks of Vicuña sheep, more numerous than had been seen by us in the other cold regions of South America.

From Vinnas to Jangas, eighteen miles.

During this day's journey we were frequently in the greatest danger, as the path which leads down the steep side of the

mountains towards the river, steering from south to north, is in many places scarcely a quarter of an ell broad; and if the mule make a single false step, both he and his rider are precipitated into the abyss, and dashed to pieces. About an hour after our arrival at the post-house, we learned that one of the king's pack-asses had been thus killed.

From Jangas to Lunaguana, eighteen miles.

The narrow valley through which we travelled to-day has a sandy soil, which produces pomegranates, figs, citrons, oranges, ananas, chirimoyas, grapes, and a variety of other fruits, in abundance.

From Lunaguana to Cannette, eighteen miles.

About a mile and a half from Cannette we at last reached the extremity of the Cordilleras, and entered a sandy plain, through which we continued our journey towards Lima.

From Cannette to Asia, eighteen miles.

From Asia to Mala, twelve miles.

From Mala to Chilca, twelve miles.

Near Chilca I found the flat valleys, between the sea-shore and the hills to the westward, with an incrustation of salt above an inch in thickness. This salt, formed by the heat of the sun, and half crystallized, is carried for sale to Lunaguana.

From Chilca to Lurin, twenty-one miles.

From Lurin to Lima, eighteen miles.

Total—From Potosi to Lima, one thousand two hundred and fifteen miles.

Lima, the capital of Peru, and the residence of the viceroy, lies in a sandy plain, only two miles in breadth, between the Cordilleras and the sea; which, it is probable, extended formerly above a mile further inland towards the mountains. This, at least, would seem evident from the sea-sand and shells with which the flat ground is covered to the extent of two miles, and from the numerous small hillocks wholly composed of such shells.

Lima is a large city; but on account of the frequent earthquakes, the houses are only one story high, and very slightly constructed with planks, laths, and reeds, plastered over with mortar; the flat roofs being covered with small light shingles. On the outside they have, indeed, a mean appearance, but within they are magnificent and convenient. The streets are very regular, straight, broad, clear, and well paved; and in almost all of them are palaces of the rich nobles; some of which are built in the modern style of architecture. Alleys shaded with rows of high lime-trees, country-houses, and gardens, embellish the environs of the city; which would certainly be a most charming place of abode were it less subject to disease and earthquakes,

and if the inhabitants suffered less from the excessive heat and swarms of every kind of vermin.

The whole coast on the South Sea is here subject to frequent earthquakes: one of which about fifty ago years destroyed Lima, and the extensive seaport Callao, the latter of which was overwhelmed by the waves of the raging ocean. The ruins of Callao are still visible; but the citadel, which was on an eminence considerably higher than the city, remains standing.

The rich commercial city of Ariquipa has likewise been converted by earthquakes into a heap of ruins; on which, however, fresh inhabitants have been tempted to build, on account of its advantageous situation. With regard to earthquakes, the month of October is the most dangerous season.

The population of Lima was formerly estimated at seventy thousand; at present, owing to the total decay of trade in Peru, it is said to have decreased one-third, and to have sunk so low as fifty thousand Spaniards, people of colour, and negroes.

So late as thirty years ago, Lima was one of the richest and most flourishing cities in Spanish America. But since that time the markets have been so overstocked with European goods, that the capitals of most of the commercial houses became invested in piece and other goods, and all the ready money by degrees emigrated to Cadiz; which necessarily occasioned an excessive fall in the value of European articles of merchandize. A pair of French silk-stockings, which then cost forty piastres, may be now purchased for six; and in like manner all European goods have sunk to one third of their former price, and even lower. Thus the merchant gradually lost the capital which he had risked in trade, and was totally ruined. The same is said to be the case in all the other commercial cities of the Spanish colonies in South America. The consequent scarcity of money caused an almost total stoppage in the working of the mines; and it seemed as if this source of wealth in Peru would be wholly dried up. To prevent this, the viceroy, La Croix, an intelligent, disinterested, and generally beloved Netherlander, had requested of the king to send over to Peru skilful German miners and mineralogists, possessed of the requisite talents and knowledge; and in the mean time erected, at the expence of the proprietors of the mines, a supreme tribunal of the mines, on the plan of a similar tribunal in Mexico. On my arrival in Peru, however, I found that the members who composed this supreme court were entirely destitute of mineralogical knowledge: and the Peruvian board of mines has not yet expended a single penny for promoting the working of any of the numerous mines under their jurisdiction. Of this the proprietors loudly complain; but their complaints are no where attended to. Government not only leaves them to

themselves without any support, but likewise depresses them by vexatious processes and chicanery, and by executions on the slightest refusal; by which many have been driven from their homes. The sub-delegates, or judges, in the mining districts, are more especially the greatest villains, who enrich themselves by their unjust acts of tyranny, and continually accuse the subjects of sedition and rebellion; while the viceroy, who resides in the capital, and is a stranger to the extensive region committed to his care, gives himself little trouble about the burthens and oppressions under which the people groan.

I staid only three weeks at Lima, during which time I had several private interviews with the viceroy; who, at the desire of the governor of Guancavelica, ordered me to proceed to that place, as director of the royal quicksilver works, for the purpose of introducing the Indian, instead of the ill-contrived and wasteful Almadena furnaces. Having received my commission and written instructions, I accordingly left the capital, and arrived at Guancavelica on the 6th of May, 1790, accompanied by my family and five German miners. The sudden transition from the hot climate of Lima to the cold mountainous regions, threw my wife, servants, and miners, into an intermittent fever, from which my wife did not recover till seven months after, by a change of place and air.

I soon discovered that, in procuring me this commission, M. de Tagle, the governor (an old Creole) who, by pretended patriotic projects, had amassed a fortune of a million of piastres, had no other end in view but to derive a profit from furnishing the necessary building materials, for which he received more than four times their value. I accordingly protested against these nefarious proceedings, and began to make my own bricks, which cost no more than half a piastre per hundred, though the governor's workmen had charged 25 piastres for the same quantity. The governor, however, still counteracted my plans for saving the king's money, by endeavouring to force useless labourers and overseers upon me. These attempts I resolutely resisted; and on my threatening to return again immediately to Lima, he at length suffered me to go on in my own way, and the erecting of the furnaces proceeded with unremitted diligence: but before I could finish them, the governor, having persuaded the viceroy that the Indian furnaces, though they would cost twice as much as the old ones, were wholly unfit for the intended purpose, procured an order to suspend the work. I easily proved the untruth of these malicious representations, and the governor was in consequence recalled to Lima, to give an account of his conduct; as it appeared that during the three years of his administration only from 13 to 14 thousand cwt. of quicksilver had been produced, at an

expence of 166 piastres per cwt.; though his predecessor had furnished annually 2000 cwts., at from 99 to 100 piastres per cwt. I could not, however, get the suspension taken off.

I then proposed to the viceroy plans for erecting machinery for pounding and washing the ore, which yield only 1-4 per cent. of quicksilver; and proved that 16 of my Idrian furnaces would thus produce as much as the 75 old ones. These plans were rejected by the viceroy, on account of the expence, which I estimated at 100,000 piastres, though the king annually loses above 200,000 by bad management, and an unnecessary number of officers, and the excessive consumption of fuel, which is very scarce and dear.

An order was soon after sent to me to proceed to the province of Tarma, as superintendent of the celebrated mines of Pasco. This was a fortunate circumstance, a change of air being necessary for the re-establishment of my health, as vexation at the unjust treatment I had met with had thrown me into a violent fever, which during four weeks endangered my life.

The province of Guancavelica contains many extraordinary rich strata and veins of gold, silver, copper, and lead ores, the greatest part of which, however, lie quite neglected, or the pits are not sunk to a sufficient depth. Some of the ores yield from 9 to 10 marks, and others 22 marks of silver in every 50 cwt.

On the 14th of January 1791, I left Guancavelica, and proceeded to Guando, eighteen miles.

Immediately after leaving Guando, we descended into a deep valley towards Iscuchaca; near which place we crossed the broad and rapid river Anguiacu, over a neat stone bridge.

From Guando to Acostambo, eighteen miles.

From Acostambo to Guaiucachi, eighteen miles.

From Guaiucachi to Guanajaia, six miles.

The valley becomes broader, and is uncommonly pleasant and fertile. On each side of the river are many towns and villages inhabited by Spaniards, Indians, and Creoles. Guanajaia contains a parish church, a chapel, and well-built houses, belonging to the rich landholders of the district; and its markets are abundantly supplied.

From Guanajaia to Matuguasi, fifteen miles.

From Matuguasi to Gauxa, fifteen miles.

Gauxa is a small town with two churches and well-built houses. Here the sub-delegate resides, whose jurisdiction extends as far as Guaiucachi.

From Gauxa to Tarma, twenty-four miles.

Tarma is the capital of a government of the same name, is situated in a deep narrow valley, and inhabited chiefly by Creoles, Mestizos, and Indians. The adjoining district is very fertile,

but the climate unhealthy, as the surrounding high mountains prevent a free circulation of air. Near this place are two quick-silver-mines, one of which was dug into an non-south vein of five ells, with solid and volatilsed cinnabar; both, however, were yet only a few fathoms deep. Here likewise two veins with antimony and white silver-ore are worked, and in several pits they dug native salt-petre of an excellent quality.

From Tarma to Palcamayo, fifteen miles.

From Palcamayo to Reyes, eighteen miles.

From this place to Pasco, they have no other fuel but a kind of peat, with which the high mountains are covered a foot deep.

From Reyes to Callanmayo, fifteen miles.

About a mile from Reyes, to the west of the mountains, begins a large lake fourteen miles in length.

From Callanmayo to Pasco, fifteen miles.

Pasco is only a small town where the sub-delegate and the officers who superintend the mining-house, and collect the king's duties, and some wealthy proprietors of mines, reside. Most of the other proprietors live at their mines on the great silver mountain Jauricocha, distant about six miles from Pasco.

Jauricocha contains a prodigious mass of ore (half a mile long, equally broad, but in depth only fifteen fathoms), of fine porous brown iron-stone, which is throughout interspersed with pure silver. This iron-stone itself contains, indeed, at most nine marks of silver in every fifty hundred weight of which, however, the unskilful Indian metallurgist gains from the smelting-furnace only from ten to seven marks. But a fine white metallic argil in the middle of the mass of ore, about one-quarter of an ell in thickness, yields from two hundred to one thousand marks of fine silver in every fifty hundred weight. Wherever the miner hits upon this immense vein, he finds ores containing more or less of silver. This has induced a number of needy and ignorant adventurers to perforate the mass of ore with innumerable holes, without order or regulation, so that it is wonderful that the whole mine had not long ago fallen in, which will probably be the case in less than forty years. Single pits frequently tumble in and kill the workmen, but such accidents excite very little attention.

Above two hundred private proprietors and workers of mines have their pits on this mountain, and annually extract about two hundred thousand marks of silver.

After I had spent two months in examining into the state of the mines and smelting houses, I sent a long report to the viceroy, in which I pointed out all the defects I had observed, and proposed what I thought the best means for rendering them more productive, and the working of them permanently advantageous,

both to the private proprietors and adventurers, and to the king's treasury. But neither here nor at Bellavista, in the province of Cajatambo, a hundred and thirty-five miles from Lima, was I able to effect any thing.

The viceroy absolutely refused any pecuniary assistance from the funds appropriated to the improvement of the mines; and would not approve of the plan for raising the necessary supplies by a loan. All I could obtain was a commendatory epistle in praise of my zeal. I therefore resolved to remain no longer in Peru—a land morally and physically pernicious to me;—where I had sacrificed my health to the conscientious discharge of duty; having been obliged, in the execution of the most dangerous and laborious commissions, to act not only as a director of the smelting-houses, but likewise as carpenter, smith, and mason; and where I had endeavoured by every means to dispel the incredible ignorance and barbarism prevailing in the mint and mining departments, by erecting laboratories, and reading lectures with suitable experiments.

But the overseers and officers of the mines, whose want of skill and malpractices I exposed, counteracted with all their might the royal commissioners, by secret cabals and the basest calumnies. In writing and in conversation they decried the Germans as arch-heretics, German Jews, and cheats; as men, in short, who, it was to be feared, would corrupt the morals of the honest miners and overseers; and tried every means to render them suspicious to the proprietors of the mines, fearing lest, by listening to our instructions, they might be induced to examine too narrowly into the conduct of their ignorant and dishonest servants.

They even excited the Indian labourers against us, by insinuating that the foreigners had come solely for the purpose of working the mines by machinery, and would thus deprive them of the means of subsistence. In this opposition they were encouraged and joined by a numerous band of merchants in the principal cities; as I had spoken loudly against the enormous usury of from 30 to 40 per cent. by which they oppressed the workers of the mines, and made every effort to put a stop to their rapacity.

Before I take a final leave of South America, I shall, for the information of my readers, give a few general observations relative to Buenos Ayres and Peru.

The gold and silver mines are the chief source of riches in this country. The inland trade of the provinces is inconsiderable, on account of the want of culture, and the thinness of the population; and the foreign commerce is of the passive kind, being almost entirely in the hands of Europeans.

Almost all the mines in Peru were first opened by deserters from the army and navy, sailors, and other vagabonds; and continued to be worked without observance of the mine-laws and regulations, as if merely for the sake of plunder; and most of them are even at present in this wretched condition.

In 1789, three million five hundred and seventy thousand piastres in silver, and seven hundred and sixty-six thousand seven hundred and sixty-eight piastres in gold, were coined at the royal mint of Lima; and in the year 1790, five hundred and thirty-four thousand marks of silver, and six thousand and thirty-eight marks of gold. Of these sums above one half was the produce of the mines of Gualgayoc and Pasco. The mines of Guantajaya, in the government of Atiquipa, three hundred miles from Lima, and six from the sea-port Iquique, annually yield thirty-eight thousand marks of silver; but might yield a considerable greater quantity, if it were not situated in the dry burning sandy desert on the sea-shore. Fresh water must be fetched from a distance of from twenty to thirty miles; and a common drinking-glass full is sometimes sold at the rate of a piastre. The ores there dug out are for the most part rich horn ores; and sometimes they meet with large lumps of pure silver.

If Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres, possessed the same advantages as the more populous and industrious kingdom of Mexico, where royal and private banks are established for the support and furthering of the mines, and advancing money to the workers of them, and where, as it is less distant from the mother country, a stricter obedience is paid to the laws, and a better system of policy and economy prevails—Peru (where every thing still remains in a state of chaotic confusion) might alone furnish annually a four times greater quantity of gold and silver than Mexico, which abounds less with these precious metals. But this is very far from being the case.

From authentic registers transmitted to the governors of the different provinces, it appears that from the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1790, they coined in the royal mints

	<i>In Gold</i> Piastres.	<i>In Silver</i> Piastres.	<i>Total</i> Piastres.
At Mexico	62,044	17,435,644	18,063,688
At Lima	821,168	4,341,071	5,162,239
At Potosi	299,816	3,983,176	4,283,024
At St. Jago	721,754	146,132	867,886

Total |2,470,812|2,5906,023|28,376,831

The same in English money, reckoning the piastres at 3s. 7d.

Places.	Gold.			Silver.			Total.		
	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
Mexico	112,524	11	0	3,123,886	4	4	3,236,410	15	4
Lima	147,125	18	8	772,775	4	5	919,901	3	1
Potosi	53,723	8	2	713,652	7	4	767,374	15	6
St. Jago	129,314	5	2	26,181	19	8	155,496	4	10
Total	442,687	3	0	4,636,495	15	9	5,079,182	18	0

If to these sums we add the gold and silver fabricated into various utensils for churches, convents, and private persons; and the sums clandestinely exported by the merchants without being coined, which is supposed to amount to a third, or even to one half of the whole, we may venture to estimate the annual produce at about nine millions sterling.

When the silver has been melted and refined at the royal mint, the following duties are deducted:

One half per cent. cobos, or old established duty to the king.

Six per cent. real diesmo, or the king's tythe.

Six per cent. derechos de fundicion, or to defray the expence of melting and refining, for one bar of two hundred marks.

On every mark of silver, one real de la Plata for the salaries, &c. of the royal tribunal of the mines.

As soon as the silver is melted, stamped, and proved, eight piastres, five reals, and thirteen marvedis de Plata, is, according to the regulations of the mint, paid for each mark.

Gold only pays four per cent. duty; and after deducting the expence of melting and proving it, the royal treasury allows sixteen piastres for it, if it be of the fineness of twenty-two carats.

The physicians having certified that, from the deranged state of my health, I could not without the most imminent danger of my life continue to act as commissioner of the mines of the Cordilleras, the viceroy reluctantly gave me permission to return to Europe. Accordingly on the 25th December, 1792, I sailed from Callao, the port of Lima, in lat. 12° 3' S. and long. 298° 30', on board a register-ship; which proceeded to Europe by Cape Horn.

On the 28th of May, 1793, I safely arrived at Cadiz, and immediately set out for Madrid; where, after spending seven months in tedious solicitations to have the terms of my agreement fulfilled, I at last obtained, as a reward for my services, a small pension for life.

APPENDIX;

Containing Particulars, methodically arranged, of the various Countries belonging to Spain in South America, compiled and translated by the English Editor, from the latest and best Authorities.*

SPANISH America is divided into FOUR vice-royalties, of unequal dimensions, viz.

That of Mexico, or New Spain, comprehending New Galicia, New Biscay, New Navarre, New Leon, New Mexico, the oridas, and the two Californias.

That of New Grenada, comprehending Terra Firma, Panama, Veraguay, and the province of Quito.

That of Lima, comprehending Peru and Chili.

And that of la Plata, comprehending Paraguay, Tucuman, and a part of the former Peru.

Between the 40th deg. of N. lat. and the 50th deg. of S. lat. lie these kingdoms of Mexico, New Grenada, Lima, and La Plata. They extend more than 6,000 geographical miles in length, and are from 60 to 900 miles in breadth. The population has been estimated at about five millions of Spaniards and people of various colours, and about as many Negroes and wild Indians.

In order to facilitate the administration of justice, the provinces are divided into *audicencies*, which are again subdivided into *partidos*. They are also divided into military districts, which are under the authority of captains-general, governors, and commanders.

The viceroys maintain a splendid court, though their power is extremely limited, from the authority possessed by the judges, and from their not being permitted to interfere with the colonial treasures, or the military or marine forces.

The military department is much neglected in all the Spanish possessions; the militia being but sufficient to keep the Indians in subjection: and the marine is confined to ten corvettes, or armed galleons, stationed along a coast extending from nine to twelve thousand miles!

All colonial affairs are finally referred to the *Council of the Indies*, which holds its sittings at Madrid, and of which the *minister of the Indies* is the perpetual president.

The inhabitants of these immense territories have, during three

* See the conclusion of the preface.

centuries, groaned under the severest despotism, so that commerce has been injured, agriculture neglected, and the exertions of industry paralyzed, and in a great measure rendered abortive. Galleons, and afterwards register-ships, were exclusively permitted to carry out European merchandize to the colonies, and in return brought back the gold and silver drawn from the mines of the new world, which the indolent Spaniards saw with perfect apathy go to enrich the surrounding commercial nations.

Spain did not, however, succeed in her projects of monopoly, as the other European nations, which were prohibited by the most severe laws from entering any of her colonial ports, nevertheless contrived, with a boldness and perseverance equal to the importance of the object they had in view, to supply these countries with every article of which they might stand in need. In particular our own merchants, as well as those of Holland, employed by turns, gold and the force of arms, to counteract the vigilance of the Spanish *guarda costas*, stationed along the coast, to prevent such contraband traffic. The idea was indeed equally absurd and impolitic, to endeavour to shut out the one half of the world from all connection with the other.

From these and other circumstances, no advantage has hitherto been derived from the precious metals, either by America herself or the mother country, since the former is not permitted to exchange her gold and silver for those commodities of which she may stand in need, and the latter is at no pains to supply those wants.

In 1778, Galvez, at that time minister of American affairs, endeavoured to produce some changes in their absent colonial system. Under his administration, thirteen principal ports in Old Spain were successively permitted to engage in a free trade with the colonies. But this minister still wished to prevent, as far as possible, other nations from a participation in the benefits to be derived from this trade, which was the reason why he only rendered a very few of the American ports free, and established a most rigorous system of police, in order to prevent the introduction of contraband commodities. We are informed by M. Bonrgoing, in his view of Spain, that this liberty was not extended to the Spanish colonies in general till 1785.

However paradoxical it may appear, several Spaniards affirm, that those prohibitory measures have tended rather to increase than diminish this illicit commerce; but the best informed mercantile men assert, on the contrary, that since this period, the manufactures of Old Spain have been greatly improved and multiplied: the linens of Navarre and Aragon, the cloths of Segovia, the silks of Valencia, besides various other articles, render the Spanish commerce less dependant on foreign importations.

During 1778, the first year after the establishment of those new regulations, the following number of vessels were freighted for South America, from seven of the principal ports of Spain.

The subjoined tables shew at one view the value of their cargoes in British money, and the proportion between the exports of Spanish produce, and that furnished by other states.

PORTS.	No.	Spanish Produce.	Value of Foreign Produce.	Duties Paid.
		£.	£.	£.
From Cadiz - - - -	63	332,701	922,543	66,926
— Corunna - -	25	69,691	67,826	7,184
— Barcelona -	23	163,290	52,513	8,384
— Malaga - -	34	85,657	12,927	5,518
— St. Andero -	13	19,128	99,807	7,666
— Alicante - -	3	5,299	2,508	328
— St. Croix, in Teneriffe	9	30,165		1,755
Total	170	705,911	1,156,924	95,841

Table shewing the amount of the imports into Spain from South America, in 1778:

PORTS.	Value of the Cargoes.		Amount of the Duties.	
	£.	£.		
To Cadiz	860,257	24,388		
— Corunna - - - -	683,328	43,386	10	
— Barcelona - - - -	107,713	1,931	15	
— Malaga - - - - -	24,745	119	15	
— St. Andero - - -	114,852	9	1,680	6
— Alicante - - - -	29,895	13		
— St. Croix, in Teneriffe - - - -	43,164	4	2,779	18
Total	1,863,957	3	77,286	11

From 1778 to 1788, the number of free ports in the mother country, had been increased from seven to twelve. The exportations of Spanish merchandize had also, during the same period, been more than quintupled, the exports of foreign products in Spanish bottoms more than tripled, and the imports from America in return augmented by more than nine tenths.

The following table given in M. Bourgoing's account of Spain, exhibits at one view the amount of the Spanish exports and imports to and from South America during 1788:

PORTS.	Value of Spanish Produce.	Value of Foreign Produce.		Value of Colonial Imports.	
		<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>l.</i>	<i>s.</i>
Seville - - - - -	95,275	14,342	4	3,249	5
Cadiz - - - - -	2,281,310	3,038,345	13	18,382,895	16
Malaga - - - - -	318,801	33,683	17	296,738	2
Barcelona - - - - -	742,209	52,082	18	886,162	8
Corunna - - - - -	249,838			2,040,639	14
St. Sebastian - - - - -	9,113	79,488	7	283,888	5
Attacks of Tortosa -	21,609	360	2	6,230	17
St. Andero - - - - -	127,671	281,948	15	657,398	2
Gijon - - - - -	1,544	28,299	16	16,052	5
Alicant - - - - -	13,564	815	0	15,877	15
Palma - - - - -	14,971			6,852	2
Canaries - - - - -	55,264	32,990	12	71,585	18
Total	<i>l.</i> 3,930,576 1	3,562,357	4	22,667,320	9

From the preceding table it appears that the total value of the imports from South America, during 1788, amounted

to £.22,667,320 9

And the total of the exports to 7,493,933 5

So that the imports exceed the exports by £.15,173,387 4

In 1788, the duties on the exports and imports amounted to 1,386,423 14

Whereas in 1778 they produced 169,032 5

Surplus in 1788 £.1,217,391 9

From various authorities, it appears certain, that Spain has, since 1788, exported to South America more wines, fruits, and manufactured productions, than formerly; it is equally certain, that she has also since imported a greater quantity of tobacco, sugar, coffee, and other commodities from her American possessions, though these are still far from having obtained that degree of perfection of which they are susceptible; that, in short, the intercourse between the mother country and her colonies has become much greater than at any former period. Previous to 1778, twelve or fifteen vessels only were engaged in the colonial trade, and these never performed more than one voyage in the course of three years; but in 1791, eighty-nine ships cleared out from different Spanish ports for South America.

It is not easy to ascertain the exact quantity of gold and silver drawn by Spain from the mines in her American colonies. Part of these metals is converted into current coin at Lima, Santa-Fé, Carthagena, and especially in Mexico, but a part also is sent under the form of ingots, either clandestinely or legally, to the mother country. Some judgment might be formed of the quantity of precious metals obtained from the mines, by the duties levied on their produce; but these have greatly fluctuated, nor have they been at all times uniform in every part

of Spanish America. The duty at first levied was one fifth, but this was, in some cases, afterwards reduced to one tenth, and in others to one twentieth.

In 1552, Charles V. added to this duty $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to defray the expence of coinage, &c.; at a later period, the duty of one fifth was reduced in Peru and Mexico, to one tenth.

According to the latest assessments, the duty on silver is $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and on gold 3 per cent. From these data, it might, therefore, be supposed that a pretty accurate estimate could be formed of the annual produce of the mines; but the amount of these duties being frequently confounded in the custom-house accounts, with those on quicksilver, paper, &c. they afford no just criterion on the subject.

The most accurate information respecting this matter is, perhaps, to be found in the statement given by M. Helms, which makes the produce almost FIVE MILLIONS, in 1790, nearly three of which were in Mexico.

In 1791, Spanish as well as foreign merchants, received permission to import Negro slaves and hardware, and to export the productions of La Plata. This encouragement has contributed greatly to the advancement of agriculture, and the increase of population. The pasture-grounds support millions of oxen, horses, sheep, and swine. Such numbers of horned cattle are reared, that in the year 1792, 825,609 ox hides were shipped for Spain alone. There is an abundance of salt in that province; and no want of convenient places where boats and ships may take in a cargo of salted flesh for exportation. The Rio de la Plata, the Uruguay, Parana, and other smaller streams, afford great advantages in this respect.

In 1796, there arrived 35 loaded ships at Buenos Ayres from Cadiz; twenty-two from Barcelona, Malaga, and Alsaguez; nine from Coruna; five from St. Audero; one from Vigo; and one from Gijon. The value of that part of the cargoes which consisted of Spanish productions, amounted to 1,705,866 American dollars. The value of the following manufactures, &c. which were imported in the above ships, amounted to 1,148,078; and the sum total of both, to 2,853,944 piastres. On the other hand, there sailed from Buenos Ayres twenty-six ships for Cadiz; ten for Barcelona, Malaga, and Alicant; eleven for Coruna; and four for St. Audero. These carried coined and uncoined gold of the value of 1,425,701 piastres. The value of the silver exported amounted to nearly 2,556,304, and that of the other productions of the province to 1,076,877 piastres. The value of all the exports consequently amounted to 5,058,882. The goods exported consisted of 874,593 raw ox hides; 43,752 horse hides; 24,436 skins of a finer sort; 46,800 arrobes of melted

tallow; 771 arrobes of Vicunna wool; 2264 arrobes of common wool; and 291 arrobes of the wool of the Guanaco, or camel sheep; 11,890 goose wings; 451,000 ox horns; 3223 cwt. of copper; 4 cwt. tin; 2541 tanned hides; 222 dozen of manufactured sheep skins; 2128 cwt. of salted beef; and 185 cwt. of salted pork.

The increase of trade in the province of La Plata clearly appears from a comparative statement of the imports and exports of 1795 and 1796. In this latter year there were imported 932,481 piastres worth of goods from Spain; 760,361 piastres worth from the Havannah; and 50,154 piastres worth from Lima, more than in the year immediately preceding.

ACCOUNT OF THE VICEROYALTY OF LA PLATA.

THIS portion of South America may be said to consist of four distinct and grand divisions, viz. the audience of *Charcas*, or the detached provinces adjoining Peru; the government of *Paraguay proper*; that of *Buenos Ayres*; and *Tucuman*, with *New Chili*, or the provinces of Chili which lie to the east of the Andes, and do not belong to the presidency of St. Jago.

In the greater part of this viceroyalty the subdivisions constantly undergo changes, for new colonies are suddenly founded, and ancient ones are frequently abandoned.

CHARCAS; OR, SOUTHERN PERU.

This *audiençy* is, according to some authors, divided into several large provinces or governments, of which the following are the principal:

Moxos. This province is very extensive: it joins to the south with that of Santa-Cruz de la Sierra, and the lands of the Chiquito Indians: to the east it borders on Brasil. It is upwards of 450 miles long from north to south; and nearly 600 broad from east to west. The air is hot and moist, on account of the rivers and vast forests which the country contains. This province is fertile, and abounds in plants, grain, and fruits, which require much heat to bring them to perfection: such, for example, as maize, sugar-cane, yucas (a plant which is made into bread in almost every part of America, and which by many Europeans is preferred to that of wheat,) rice, the *platanos*, which the Indians consider as their best aliment, and *green ejos*, a species of green pear. They obtain abundant harvests of cotton and cocoa-nuts, the pulp of which is so tender and rich, that the chocolate which is made from it is of a better taste, and more

nourishing than any other kind. In the forests are found, guaiacum-wood, cinnamon, and a tree called *maria*, from which a medicinal oil is acquired, which is highly esteemed for its virtue in bracing the stomach. The country also produces quinquina, or Peruvian bark, cedar-wood, and almond-trees, which are different from those of Europe; besides vanilla, and a quantity of wax. Many wild animals are to be met with, particularly tigers, bears, and hogs. The rivers swarm with fish.

SANTA-CRUZ DE LA SIERRA. This province is bounded on the north by that of Moxos; to the east by the Chiquito Indians; and to the west by that of Mizque. It is a country intersected by hills, and its climate, though hot, is not so moist as that of Moxos. It produces a sort of palm wood, which is so hard that it is used for making balconies, and other purposes which require great strength. There is another species of it, called *motaguí*, the large leaves of which are used as thatch for houses, while the small ones are eaten as a salad by the poorer sort of people. From the body of the tree a flour is obtained, which the people make into very pleasant cakes, and eat as bread. This province abounds with all sorts of birds, as well as with tigers, bears, and hogs. The soil produces rice, maize, sugar-canes, &c. and the bees afford quantities of wax.

About sixty miles to the south of the capital are four hordes of Indians, who are on friendly terms with the Spaniards, and supply them with wax, cotton, and maize. There are other Indians to the east of the river of Paraguay, who are such barbarians that they eat their prisoners. These people have a custom of going to the river at midnight to bathe; and whatever may be the weather, their women also bathe in the open air as soon as they have lain in; when, on returning from their ablutions, they roll themselves on a heap of sand, which they keep in their houses for that purpose.

The new Santa-Cruz de la Sierra (for the old town, which was more towards the south, is destroyed,) is a large city, well peopled, and has a governor and a bishop; the latter, however, resides at *Misque Pocona*.

The cruelty which characterized the first Spanish colonists, gave rise to a shocking degree of anarchy, which has ever since prevailed through those countries. Muratori thus describes their conduct: "Some Spanish merchants," says he, "who had established themselves on the other side of the Peruvian mountains, and particularly those of Santa-Cruz de la Sierra, formed amongst them a kind of union or company, the object of which was to make slaves of the Indians, and sell them. They entered the Indian territory, particularly the country of the Chiquitos, with arms in their hands, travelled to the distance of a hundred and twenty

miles, all the way chasing the savages, as hunters do their prey ; and if the spoil which they made on the lands of their enemies were not equal to their wishes, they suddenly fell upon the neighbouring hordes, with whom they were at peace, put them without mercy to the sword, or burned alive in their cabins all who attempted to resist them, while the rest were taken as slaves. To give the colour of justice to their barbarous attacks, they always pretended to have received some injury. On returning they sold their slaves for any price to men who conducted them in chains to Peru, and gained a considerable profit by selling them again. This trade produced several thousand piastres per annum to those who were concerned in it."

CHUQUISACA. This province is the first which bore the name of Chaco, a name which may be said to have afterwards performed a journey ; as it gradually extended to the southward, and now comprises the low countries and plains between Paraguay and Pilcomayo.

La Plata, or Chuquisaca, the capital, was first called La Plata, on account of a famous silver mine, which was in the mountain of Porco, near the city in question, and from which the incas derived immense sums. The nobility of this place are the most distinguished of any in Peru, and they still retain many privileges. The number of the inhabitants is about 14,000, amongst whom are many Spaniards. This city is the residence of an archbishop, whose authority extends over the whole viceroyalty.

POTOSI. This *corregidory** contains the famous silver mines which have been so often mentioned. These mines afforded, between the years 1545 and 1618, the enormous sum of 80,000,000 of pounds sterling, and they are still far from exhaustion. The metal continues to be abundant, though the most accessible part has been taken away, and the Spaniards will not give themselves the trouble to sink these mines very deep, because there are in Peru, and even in the vicinity of Potosi, many others which can be more easily worked.

The city or town of Potosi contains, according to *Helms*, 100,000 souls, inclusive of slaves ; but other writers state the numbers at not more than 50,000. We ought, however, to prefer the testimony of *Helms*, because he resided many years in that country. Potosi is the seat of the administration of the mines, and the tribunals that relate thereto : it is the centre of a very considerable commerce, which is conveyed by the river Pilcomayo.

* A *corregidory* is a district, which is governed by a Spanish magistrate, called a *Corregidor*. His office combines the duties of a deputy governor, and a justice of the peace.

The following corregidories are situated to the north of Potosí and Chuquisaca.

SICASICA. This corregidory, which takes its name from the capital, joins, to the north and north-east, with the province of Larecaja, in the bishopric of La Paz: it is one of the largest corregidories in the viceroyalty. All sorts of cattle are bred in it; and it produces every kind of fruit, as well as sugar-canes, cocoa, and good wine. The bark of this district is as good as that of Loxa. Its forests afford several valuable sorts of wood, and it is said to contain two rich gold mines. The inhabitants make the wool of their sheep into various kinds of stuffs.

ORCAO. This corregidory, the capital of which bears the same name, joins on the north with that of Sicasica. It is subject to storms. A quantity of gunpowder is made in it, and it formerly contained some excellent mines of gold and silver, which have been much degraded by inundations. This province extends fifty-four miles from east to west, and twenty from north to south. Its mines still produce annually about 600 bars of silver, which weigh about eight ounces a-piece.

JAMPARAES. This corregidory produces fruits, yams, barley, wheat, maize, &c. which are sent to the cities of La Plata and Potosí. It has a considerable salt-mine, and the country furnishes wine and sugar. Amongst several wild birds which it contains, there is one called *the carpenter*, as it perforates the trees with its beak, and builds its nests in the holes.

MISQUE. This corregidory joins to the south with that of Jamparaes. Its production consists of maize, pulse, sugar-canes, and wine, and its forests afford cedars, bark, &c. It also has a silver mine.

CAYATA. This corregidory, which bears the same name as the capital, borders to the east on that of Jamparaes. It is 108 miles long from east to west, by 132 in breadth, from north to south. Its temperature is very variable. In its valleys wheat and maize are grown, and cattle of every kind are reared. It contains two mines of gold, three of silver, one of copper, one of lead, and one of tin. The forests furnish different sorts of wood, and a number of paroquets harbour in the trees: they also abound in bees, whose honey is well known by the name of the Charcas kind.

COCHABAMBA. This corregidory, the capital of which is Oropesa, borders to the south on that of Cayata; and to the west on that of Sicasica. It is 120 miles long, by 96 broad; and is called, with propriety, the granary of Peru: for it produces vast quantities of grain and seeds. The fruits of the valley of Arqua are much celebrated. In the higher parts they breed

sheep and horned cattle. Formerly much gold was derived from this district, and very lucrative veins are still met with.

CARANGAS. This corregidory, the capital of which is Tarupaca, contiguous to the laguna, or lake, called *das Aullagas*, is 108 miles long, by 90 in breadth. A number of cattle and hogs are reared in it, as well as Peruvian sheep. It has silver mines, which are well worked, and in which lumps of massive silver are found, that, according to Ulloa, often weigh 75lbs. and upwards each.

PARIA. This corregidory likewise bears the name of its capital: it borders to the north on that of Sicasica; and to the west on that of Carangas. The people rear Peruvian sheep and lamas. It contains salt mines, saline lakes, and hot springs. There are worked in it a mine of silver, one of tin, and one of lead.

PILAYA AND PASPAYA. The capital of this corregidory is called Cinti. It abounds in fruits and wine; and they make from the grapes a very celebrated sort of brandy.

TOMINA. This corregidory bears the same name as its capital, and is 72 miles in length, by 210 in circumference; but one part of it is occupied by Indians. Its climate is very hot, particularly in the vallies. It abounds in fruits, and plantations of sugar-canes, the latter of which are said to last thirty years.

There are also quantities of cattle and horses. In a village called Olopo, a district of Tomina, the natives are so little and deformed, that they seem like pigmies. They are also much afflicted with rickets.

PORCO. The corregidory so called, whose capital is Talvavara de Puro, is 190 miles long, and 120 broad. The inhabitants rear great numbers of cattle, sheep, and guanacos. There are hot springs; and the principal revenues arise from the produce of two gold mines, one silver mine, and one of copper. A single mine some years ago found in the district of Tomahaur, a lump of metal worth 3,000,000 of dollars*.

ATACAMA. The capital of this corregidory bears the name of *St. Francis d' Atacama*. It is bounded on the north by the province of Arica; on the south by Chili; and on the west by the South Sea. It abounds in fruits and seeds; and the mountains produce ostriches and numbers of Peruvian sheep. There

* In commerce, the Spaniards give the name of *pastre* to the common Spanish dollar; though there is a coin of the same kind, which circulates in Portugal and Spain under the name of *pastre*, and which is something inferior in value. The *pastre* of Italy passes for five shillings sterling, that of Spain for three shillings and seven-pence. If we estimate the value of this lump, according to the *pastre* of three shillings and seven-pence, its amount will be 537,500*l*!!

are also two silver mines, two of gold, one of copper, and one of lead, as well as some hot springs, and a lake, the water of which is as salt as that of the sea. Talc and alum are also found here.

LIPES. This corregidory, whose capital is of the same name, borders to the east on that of Atacama. It is 180 miles long, by 60 in breadth; and it affords an excellent kind of bark, and a sort of millet. There are also numbers of ostriches, partridges, and Peruvian sheep; and in the plains are found salt, salt-petre, and sulphur. It also contains mines of red and white copper, the strata of which are intermixed with gold and silver, iron and loadstone. The silver mine is very abundant.

CHUCAS. Tarija is the capital of this place. Its soil produces a quantity of corn, oil, grapes, and other fruits.

PARAGUAY.

As the subdivisions of this great province are very imperfectly known, we shall describe them in a more general manner than we have done the places preceding.

NATURE OF THE COUNTRY. Paraguay takes its name from the great river Paraguay, as the province called Rio de la Plata does from the lower part of the same river, that takes, a little above Buenos Ayres, this name, which is equivalent to that of the river of silver. It was so called by the Spaniards who first proceeded up it, probably because they found some spangles of silver mixed amongst the sand. Several geographers have asserted, that there are mines of gold and silver in the environs of the river; but it would be difficult to prove what they have advanced. It is, however, certain, that Paraguay produces neither iron nor copper. The Jesuits have declared this to be the case; and their assertion is confirmed by Helms.

The upper part of the country, which lies along the rivers of Paraguay, Pilcomayo, and Vermejo, consists of fine plains, watered by a great number of rivulets, agreeable hills, and thick forests; but the lower part contains a series of barren or swampy countries, in which there are saline plains. To the east of Parana, the ground is hilly.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. Without mentioning either the maize, which the Indians, who have submitted to the Spaniards, use generally for making bread, or the manioc and yuca, roots from which they prepare another sort of bread, which is very useful for travellers, as it will keep a long while, all the sorts of grain and pulse which the Spaniards have introduced in Paraguay grow with astonishing success. There are, indeed, but very few vines, either because the soil is not fit for them, or

perhaps because the missionaries have prevented them from being generally introduced, in order to check the outrages which generally follow the use of wine. Instead of this liquor, the Indians drink, at their festivals, a kind of beer, which is nothing more than water in which they have left to ferment for two or three days some maize flour, the seed of which has been steeped in water, and allowed to germinate, after which it is dried and ground. This liquor is capable of inebriating the drinker: it is called *chica* or *ciccia*; and the Indians think that nothing can be more delicious. It is said, that the *chica* is more agreeable to the palate than cyder, and more light and wholesome than the beer of Europe; that it increases the animal spirits, and induces pinguetion.

There may be seen at Paraguay, particularly in all the isles, a multitude of birds of various kinds, amongst which are parrots; they do great injury to the maize-fields of the Indians, as they are particularly fond of that sort of grain.

Paraguay produces, according to the missionaries, all the species of trees which are known in Europe. In some parts may be seen the famous Brazil-tree, though it is much more common in the vast and fine country after which it is named: there also grow, in almost every direction, an inconceivable number of those shrubs which bear cotton, and which form one of the principal sources of opulence in this part of the country. Sugar-canes grow spontaneously in a great place, but the Indians do not make any use of them.

A tree which is much esteemed, and which abounds in Paraguay, is that from which is derived the liquor called dragon's blood. There are several other useful resins; and it is not uncommon to meet in the woods with wild cinnamon, which is sometimes sold in Europe for that of Ceylon. Rhubarb, vanilla, and chochineal, are also amongst the natural productions of this country.

Paraguay also produces several singular fruits, which the missionaries have but vaguely described. One of these resembles a bunch of grapes, but each grape or pip of which is nearly as small as a pepper-corn. This fruit, which is called *imbegue*, has a very agreeable taste and smell. Each grape of the bunch contains only a single seed, which is as small as that of millet, and which, when cracked in the mouth, is more pungent than pepper. The fruit just described is generally eaten after dinner, or even after other meals; and according to the quantity taken into the stomach, an easy and gentle evacuation is produced in a certain length of time.

The *pigna*, another fruit of this country, bears some resemblance to the pine-apple: on which account the name of pine

has been given to the tree which produces it. The figure of the pigna, however, approaches more towards that of the artichoke; its yellow pulp is like that of the quince, but is much superior to it both in smell and taste.

The *tea*, or herb of Paraguay, so celebrated in South America, is the leaf of a species of *ilex*, about the size of a middling pear-tree. Its taste is similar to that of the mallow; and its shape is nearly like the leaf of the orange-tree: it also bears some resemblance to the cocoa of Peru, whither much of it is conveyed, but particularly to the parts which contain the mines, where it is consumed by the labourers. The Spaniards think it to be the more necessary, because the wines in those parts of the country are prejudicial to health. It is conveyed in a dry state, and almost reduced to a powder, and it is drunk as an infusion.

The great harvest of this herb takes place near new *Villarica*, which is contiguous to the mountains of Maracayn, situated to the east of Paraguay, in about 20 deg. 25 min. S. lat. This canton is much esteemed for the culture of the tree, but it is found in the marshy vallies which separate the mountains, and not on those elevations themselves.

Of this plant there are sent to Peru alone about 100,000 parcels, called arrobes, each weighing 25lbs. of 16 oz. to the pound; and the price of the arrobe is equal to twenty-eight French livres, or 1*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* sterling; which makes the total value of this merchandize sent to Peru, 116,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

The Indians who reside in the provinces of Uruguay and Parana, under the government of the Jesuits, have sown seeds of this tree, and transplanted them to Maracayn, where they have not degenerated; they resemble those of the ivy.

The people boast of innumerable virtues which this tree possesses: it is certainly aperient and diuretic; but the other qualities attributed to it are doubtful. The *Chapetons*, or European Spaniards, do not make much use of this drink; but the Creoles are passionately fond of it, in so much that they never travel without a supply of the herb: they never fail to drink an infusion of it at every meal, preferring it to all sorts of food, and never eating till they have taken this favourite beverage. Instead, however, of drinking it separately, as we drink tea in Europe, they put the plant in a calabash, mounted with silver, which they call *maté*. They add sugar to it, and pour on it hot water, which they drink off directly without waiting for a maceration, because the liquor would then become as black as ink. In order not to swallow the fragments of the plant which swim at the surface, they use a silver pipe, the top of which is perforated into a number of small holes, through which they suck the liquor without drawing in the plant. A whole party is supplied with

the tea by handing round the same pipe and bowl from one to another, and filling up the vessel with water as fast as it is drunk out. The repugnance of Europeans to drink after all sorts of people, in a country where siphilitic diseases are very prevalent, has caused the introduction of small glass pipes, which had begun to get into use at Lima in the time of Frezier.

"The commerce carried on in this herb from Paraguay," says the author just mentioned, "takes place at Santa Fé, where it arrives by the river La Plata, as well as in waggons. 'There are,' he observes, "two sorts, one called *Yerva de Palos*, and the other, which is finer and of a superior quality, is denominated *Hierba de Camini*. This last is grown on the lands of the Jesuits. There are every year sent from Paraguay to Peru, upwards of 50,000 arrobes, or 1,250,000lbs. of both sorts, of which one third is of the Camini kind, without reckoning about 25,000 arrobes of that growth at Palos, which is sent to Chili."

ANIMALS. The animals peculiar to the whole of Spanish America, are all to be met with in Paraguay. The *Jaguars*, *Cougars*, and other wild beasts and serpents, seldom hurt those who attack them: much more injurious, however, are the ants and apes; for the former, which are more numerous in Paraguay than any where else, devour the tender plants of all sorts, and prevent them from coming to perfection; while the apes ravage the country, rob the trees of their fruit, and commit extensive depredations in the corn-fields. Some of these animals are almost as big as men, and several of the hordes of Indians kill and eat them, not merely without repugnance, but with pleasure.

The inhabitants of Paraguay are said to possess an excellent antidote against the bite of serpents, in a plant which, for this reason, is called *viper-grass*: its virtue is so great, that, on being macerated while green, and applied to the bitten part, it effects a rapid cure. The water in which this herb, whether green or dry, has been infused, is not less salutary. The only account which we have of this plant has been given by the missionaries; and it is much to be regretted that they have furnished us with no other particulars of it than above-mentioned.

TOWNS. The state of the towns in Paraguay is but little known. *Assuncion*, in English *Assumption*, is the capital of the province; it is situated 840 miles from Buenos Ayres, on the river of Paraguay. Though the residence of a bishop and a governor, it is but thinly inhabited.

NEEMOUCOU is a pretty town, situated, according to M. d'Azzara, in 25 deg. 52 min. 24 sec. S. lat. and 99 miles from the town of Assumption. Courouguati, another town mentioned by d'Azzara, is 108 miles E. N. E. of Assumption.

OF THE ESTABLISHMENTS OF THE JESUITS IN PARAGUAY.

THE first enterprises of the missionaries, who penetrated to the then unknown centre of South America, were limited to simple excursions. They converted, from time to time, a few Indians; but there were no great number of Christians, and there was not a single church in Paraguay built to the honour of the true God. The principal and almost unique advantage then derived from their labours, was that of the baptism of a few infants in a dying condition; they, however, drew from amongst the infidels such adults as embraced the faith, and induced them to reside on the lands occupied by the Christians.

Between the years 1680 and 1690, these fathers represented to the court of Spain, that the slow success of their missions ought to be attributed to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards had excited, and to the hatred with which their insolence had inspired the Indians wherever they had shewn themselves. They insinuated that, without this obstacle, the empire of Christianity would be, by their efforts, extended to the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be brought under the dominion of his Catholic Majesty, without expence or effusion of blood. It must be clear, that this opinion of the Jesuits was rational; for how could savage people be civilized, who were courageous and intelligent, when they were subjected to the avidity of a few unprincipled merchants, who went amongst them for the purposes of plunder? The outrages committed towards the Indians by those adventurers have been recently proved by Mackenzie, and other well-informed travellers.

The demand of the Jesuits was just and reasonable, and it was attended with success. The theatre on which they were to appear, was pointed out to them; and they had a *carte blanche* for the whole extent of the territory. The governors of the adjacent provinces were forbidden to interrupt them, and they were commanded not to let any Spaniard enter their districts without the permission of the fathers.

At first they collected a very small number of families on the banks of the Uruguay; afterwards they penetrated into the country called Guayra, where they established themselves in the vicinity of the great river Parana, and on the banks of the smaller ones of Tibagi and Guichay. The Portuguese of St. Paul, in Brasil, destroyed this rising republic; and the missionaries saved themselves, with about 12,000 Indians; when they retreated, with much discernment, to the part where Parana and the Uruguay, on forming two opposite bends, approach each other with their

respective streams. San Ignacio and Loreto were their two first *poblacions* or towns. Here they laid those slight foundations on which they raised an edifice that astonished the whole world, and which added so much glory to their society as to excite the envy and jealousy of other powers.

The Jesuits laboured with so much incessant zeal, and such judicious policy, that they softened the manners of the most savage nations; caused those hordes most inclined to a wandering life to settle; and brought under their government those who had long resisted the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They gained thousands of families over to their religion, and those soon induced others to follow their example, by representing the tranquillity which they enjoyed under the influence of those holy fathers. The *Guaranis* were the most numerous and most powerful of the converted nations; and theirs became the predominant language.

We have not room to detail all the means which were employed to subjugate so completely the body and mind of so many individuals. The Jesuits omitted nothing that could insure the success of their mission; while they made every effort to increase the number of their adherents, so as to form a strong and well regulated society. The Indians, who were convinced of their better condition by being able to subsist by agriculture, lodged in a more salubrious manner, more properly clothed, cured of their diseases, and governed with a mild degree of strictness, exhibited such obedience and submission as resembled adoration; and this striking success had been obtained by the Jesuits without violence, or even constraint. It is added, that they caused the Indians to be instructed in the military art; that they accustomed them to the most exact discipline; and that the army which they could form amounted to 60,000 well equipped men. These, however, are the exaggerations dictated by envy. The Indians resided in the towns and villages, where they devoted themselves to agriculture and manufactures; and many of them even aspired to the liberal arts. Nothing, in short, could equal the obedience of the inhabitants of this province, except their content.

Several writers have treated these very Jesuits with much severity, by accusing them of ambition, pride, and abuse of power, for having caused to be whipped before them not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, whom the Indians had chosen from amongst themselves, and suffering persons of the highest condition in their districts to kiss the ends of their garments, which they considered as an honour. The Jesuits were also said, by their enemies, to possess immense property; that all the manufactures belonged to them; that the natural produc-

tions of the country were brought to them; and that the treasures annually transmitted to the superior proved, that their zeal for religion was not the only motive for the missions.

The fathers, however, contented themselves with a mild refutation of such calumnies. They merely asked, where were the pretended gold mines which afforded them such riches? how it could be possible to conceal so much gold? and whether any missionary was ever seen in an equipage proper for a rich man? On the contrary, when they travelled from one country to another, they never had any thing but a pair of bags, or a small box, which held their linen and provisions. And finally, whether, after their death, any of them were found to possess gold, silver, bills of credit, or other property of value?

Hence it appears, that a just political economy was the only source of the prosperity of the religious colonies. For a long time the Indians were accustomed to send to the towns of the Spaniards whatever overplus they had of cotton, tobacco, tea, limes, &c. and all these effects were placed in the hands of the procurator-general of the Jesuit missionaries. This officer sold or exchanged them to as much advantage as possible, and after giving an exact account of the produce, and deducting the duties or tribute, he employed the remainder in purchasing articles of utility or necessity for the Indians, without retaining any thing for himself.

The Indians belonging to the missions were free people, who were placed under the protection of the king of Spain, and who agreed to pay an annual tribute of a dollar per head. The king had granted them certain privileges, in virtue of which all the women, the men below twenty years of age, and above fifty, as well as those who had lately embraced Christianity, were exempted from the payment of the tribute; but, on the other hand, they were obliged, in time of war, to join the Spanish armies, to arm themselves at their own expence, and to work at the fortifications. They rendered great services to Spain in the war against the Portuguese.

Notwithstanding such sacred compacts, the monarchs of Europe made no scruple to treat these Christian people like a horde of wild beasts. In 1757, a part of the territory of the missions was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacramento, in order that the limits of the possessions of the kingdoms might be better defined. It is asserted, that the Jesuits refused to submit to this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one master to another without their own consent. The Indians, according to the accounts in the London Gazette, took up arms, but were easily defeated with great slaughter by the European troops who were sent to subdue them.

The suddenness of this defeat proves, that they had neither union amongst themselves, nor chiefs to direct them, and consequently that the Jesuits were not concerned in their operation. In 1767, these fathers were driven from America, by order of the king, and their unfortunate converts degraded to the same footing as the other indigenous inhabitants of the country.

It is very evident that the hatred of a few Spaniards towards the Indians belonging to the missions was so great, that, as Father Aguilar states in his justificatory memoir, "they wished to force those Indians to submit, not merely to the king of Spain, but also to every Spaniard individually, as well as to the valets and slaves of the Spanish subjects; and if a Spaniard of a mongrel breed, or even more degraded than that, saw an Indian who did not humble himself before him, or submit to his caprices, he became exasperated against him, and abused him in the most virulent manner for his want of respect."

Hence the self-called *French philosophers*, by declaiming against the Jesuit missionaries, made a common cause with the tyrants of Paraguay, at the very time when they were preaching up the necessity of giving freedom to the negroes in the Antilles. Ten years afterwards these same philosophers, with Voltaire at their head, distributed their flattery and adoration to the monarchs who divided Poland.

OF THE MANNERS OF THE ABIPONS, AND SOME OTHER SAVAGE NATIONS.

The Abipons inhabit the province of Buenos Ayres. We shall give a sketch of their manners, as it is in some degree connected with what has been said of the missions.

This warlike tribe consists of about 5000 souls: they inhabit a part of the country called Yapizlaga, between the 28th and 30th degree of latitude, on the banks of the river of La Plata. They breed horses, and train up wild ones. Their arms are lances, about three or four yards long, and arrows which are sometimes pointed with iron. Their warlike spirit has rendered them formidable to the Spaniards; and the missionaries have had but little success amongst them. The blood of this nation is tolerably pure; and the women are not much browner than the Spanish females. The features of the men are regular; and the aquiline nose is very common amongst them. They have a custom of tearing the hair away from the forehead so as to appear bald, which has acquired them the name of *Callegas* amongst the Spaniards. They also tear out the beard, and mark the forehead and temples with scars by way of ornaments. They are very cleanly, and frequently bathe: they are

not anthropophagi, as has been said of some of their neighbours; but they have a voracity which is common with all savage people. They said to the missionaries, "*if you wish us to remain amongst you, you must give us plenty to eat; for we resemble the beasts, which eat at all hours, and are not like you, who eat but little and at certain periods.*" In fact, the Indians regulate themselves in this respect not by the clock, but by their appetite, which is always increasing.

Polygamy does not appear to be a general practice among them; but some of the women adopt the barbarous custom of killing their children after having suckled them, in order to bestow all their attention upon their husbands. The common age at which they marry is from twenty to twenty-five years. The girls are bought from their parents at the price of four horses, and a few clothes made of pieces of cloth of different colours, so that they resemble in some degree a Turkey carpet.

It has been asserted, that they have no idea of a Supreme Being, but that they are much in dread of a certain dæmon, or evil spirit; and that they have amongst them magicians, called *Kicet*, to whom they attribute the power of appeasing this disturber. But it is probable that this evil spirit is considered by them as the Supreme Being, to whom they only pay a sort of worship when they think him angry. The Abipons generally bury their dead under the shade of a tree; and when a chief or warrior dies, they kill his horses on his grave. Some time afterwards they dig up his remains, and convey them to a more secret and distant place.

Their opinion of another life is evident by the care which they take, on burying their dead, to inter with them provisions, and a bow and arrows, in order that they may procure themselves a subsistence in the other world; and that hunger may not induce them to return to this, to torment the living.

The Mocobs and the Tobas, to the north-west of the Abipons, speak nearly the same idiom; but the language of the Guaranians is the most extensive.

The caciques of this people are nothing more than chiefs in case of war, and judges in time of peace: their power is very limited. The little republics, or hordes of Indians, disperse with the same facility as they collect together. Each man being his own master, they separate as soon as they are discontented with the cacique, and place themselves under another; and when they quit any place, they have so little to leave behind them, that they easily, and in a short time, repair their loss.

If we may believe some of the ancient missionaries, there are amongst the caciques *magicians*, who render their authority respected by the sorcery which they employ in secret against

those with whom they are discontented. If they were to punish them publicly by the regular means of justice, they would defeat their own object; and hence these impostors make the people believe, that tigers and tempests are under their command, to devour or destroy whoever refuses to obey them. The people believe them with the more readiness, because it is not unusual to see those whom the cacique has threatened, waste away and perish, doubtlessly because poison has been administered to them in secret.

The *Manaticas*, who are more industrious and richer than the other tribes of Paragnay, live under a government whose customs resemble, in a striking manner, those of the islanders of the Pacific Ocean. The cacique amongst them possesses the sovereign authority; his lands are cultivated, and his houses built at the expence of the public. His table is always covered with the best produce of the country, and is supplied free of expence. No considerable undertaking can be ventured on without his permission: he punishes severely those who are guilty of any offence, and all treats with impunity, and according to his caprice, those with whom he is discontented. The women are in the same manner submitted to the will of the principal wife of the cacique. All the individuals of the horde pay him a tithe of the produce of their hunting and fishing; and they can neither catch animals nor fish without his permission. His authority is, besides, not merely absolute, but hereditary: as soon as the eldest son is at an age to command, his father makes over his authority to him with much ceremony; and this voluntary renunciation only increases the love and respect of the people for their old master.

The mythology of the *Manaticas* seems to possess some traits of similarity with that of the *Tatians*. They admit three Supreme Beings, one of whom is a goddess, who, according to their doctrine, is the wife of the first, and the mother of the second: they call the latter *Urasana*, and the goddess is named *Quipoci*. These deities are said to shew themselves from time to time in dreadful forms to the Indians, who assemble on certain occasions in the hall of the cacique to drink and dance. Their arrival is announced by a great noise, and as soon as they appear, the people cease their diversions, and put forth shouts of joy. The gods then address them with an exhortation to eat and drink well, and promise them an abundance of fish, game, and other valuable property: they then, to do honour to the feast, demand something to drink, and empty the goblet which is presented to them, with a quickness which would confer credit on the deities of *Valhalla* itself. It may easily be guessed that the priests or *Maponos* are behind the curtain.

These jugglers also act as oracles: they announce scarcity or abundance, storms or fine weather; they often excite wars, and never fail to demand for their gods a portion of the spoil.

The Manacicas believe that the human soul is immortal, and that, on leaving the body, it is carried to heaven by the Maponos, to live eternally in joy and pleasure. As soon as an Indian dies, the Mapono disappears for a certain time, during which, he states, that he is employed in conducting the soul of the deceased to the regions of felicity; his journey is always conceived to be very difficult, as he has to pass through thick forests, and over rude and steep mountains; he has also to cross a great river, on which is a wooden bridge, guarded night and day by the god *Tatutiso*. This divinity is not a bad resemblance of Charon: his employment is, to purify the souls of all the spots that they have received while alive. If a priest, who brings a soul, be not properly respectful towards this deity, he precipitates him into the river, and leaves him to drown. At length the soul arrives at Paradise; but the Paradise of the Indians is only a poor one, for its pleasures are not very attractive. There is nothing to be found in it but a kind of gum, with honey and fish, on which the Indian souls are fed. The Mapono, on his return, relates a thousand other absurdities concerning his journey, and never fails to get well paid for his trouble.

The small-pox commits as many ravages among the Indian hordes, as the plague does amongst us, where it is brought from the Levant. As soon as the Indians perceive that any one is attacked with this contagious disease, which generally proves mortal in Paraguay, they abandon their habitations, and retire in haste into the woods, after putting near the sick person provisions sufficient to last him three or four days, and from time to time somebody returns to renew the supply, till the patient be either dead or cured.

Father Gaëtan Cattaneo has described the manner in which father Ximenes saw the Indians fight with a jaguar, or American tiger. This missionary was travelling with three Indians, when they observed the tiger enter a small wood or coppice, and resolved to go and kill it. The father concealed himself in a place from which he could observe, without danger, all that passed. The Indians, who were accustomed to this kind of hunting and combat, arranged themselves as follows: two of them were armed with lances, and the third, who carried a musket, placed himself between the others; they then advanced all abreast, and walked round the coppice till they saw the tiger; when the man with the gun fired, and shot the animal in the head. Father Ximenes asserts, that, at the same instant when the ball was fired, he saw the tiger transfixcd by the two lances; for as soon

as the beast felt itself wounded, it darted forwards upon the person who had shot it. The two other Indians having a presentiment of what would happen, held their lances ready to stop the animal in its course; in fact, they pierced it in the flanks with admirable skill, and in an instant held it suspended in the air.

PROVINCE OF BUENOS AYRES.

THIS province, which is sometimes called after the Rio de La Plata, comprises a vast space of territory on the banks of the great river of La Plata. The eastern part is crossed by the Uruguay, and it contains a number of mountains, particularly in the interior: the other part is an immense plain, which extends to the bases of the Andes, and is in many parts impregnated with salt and nitre.

RIVERS. The river La Plata is formed by the junction of several large streams, among which the Parana is by far the largest, on which account the natives give this name to the aggregate rivers. The name of La Plata was bestowed on it by the Spaniards.

The Parana proceeds from the environs of Villa del Carmen to the north of Rio de Janeiro, and is greatly augmented in its course by a number of other streams. It flows through a mountainous country, and after reaching the large plains, receives from the north the Paraguay, which originates in a plain called Campos-Pareisis; and which, during the rainy season, forms the lake of Xarayes. The Paraguay, before it disembogues itself into the Parana, receives the Pilcomayo, a large river, which has its source near Potosi, and by which the inland navigation from the mines is carried on.

The Plata also receives the Vermego and the Salado, from the side of the Andes, and the Uruguay from the side of Brazil. In breadth, it equals that of the Amazons, and is navigable by vessels even to the distance of 400 leagues from its mouth. The great cataract of Parana is situated in the 24th degree of latitude, not far from the city of Guayra; but this cataract, according to the account of Dobrizhaser, ought rather to be termed a long rapid river, since the water, for the space of twelve leagues, falls over rocks of a very singular and frightful form.

Besides the great river just described, it is necessary to mention the Uruguay, a river which surpasses either the Rhine or the Elbe.

At its mouth the eye can scarcely perceive both the banks at one time, and at 200 leagues higher up it requires an hour to cross it. It is full of fish, and is frequented by sea-wolves; its

bed is interspersed with rocks, and its course is interrupted by several rapids. The rivers to the west of La Plata, mostly lose themselves in the marshes or sandy plains.

WINDS. The west wind is here called the *Pampero*, because it passes over a plain 300 leagues long, which is denominated Las Pampas, and inhabited by hordes of migratory Indians, known in that country by the name of Pampas. This plain extends from Buenos Ayres to the confines of Chili: it is perfectly level, and covered with very high grass. The Pampero not meeting with any thing in its course to check its impetuosity, acquires additional strength, till, by running straight along the channel of the river of La Plata, it blows with such fury, that ships, in order to withstand it, are obliged to throw out all their anchors, and strengthen their cables with strong chains of iron. Their approach is indicated by violent thunder and lightning.

CLIMATE. The winter begins in June, when it rains much, and the thunder and lightning are so violent, that nothing but custom can prevent one from being terrified at such a period. The great heat of summer is tempered in these regions by a breeze, which is felt towards noon.

PRODUCTIONS. In the plains there is a scarcity of wood; but to counteract this want, there is a vast extent of land fit for the purposes of agriculture. The soil is sandy, with a mixture of black mould. The nature of the mountains on the upper Uruguay, is not known. Helms asserts, that a silver mine has been discovered in them: they produce an abundance of medicinal plants, but no precise description has been given of them. On the side of Monte-Video and Buenos Ayres, all sorts of fruits are obtained, and particularly the *durasno*, a very delicate fruit, the tree of which is nearly similar to the European peach-tree, except that its trunk is much larger. The trees which produce this fruit are so numerous in the province in question, that they afford the only wood that is used for fuel; notwithstanding which, no diminution is apparent amongst them. The oxen and horses are found in such numbers, that they require only to be taken by means of a noose, as is done by the Cossacks of the Don, and the peasants of some parts of Italy. There are also wild birds and animals of every species, and particularly jaguars, which are larger here than any where else. The animal called here *hormiguero*, which lives upon nothing but ants, is quite common in the Pampas: it has a very long and pointed muzzle.

WILD OXEN. The number of wild oxen here is so great, that every year 100,000 are killed solely for the sake of their hides. About twenty hunters on horseback proceed to the spots

where these animals are known to herd, having in their hands a long stick, shod with iron, very sharp, with which they strike the ox that they pursue on one of the hind legs, and they make the blow so adroitly, that they almost always cut the sinews in two above the joint. The animal soon afterwards falls, and cannot rise again. The hunters, instead of stopping, pursue the other oxen at full gallop, with the reins loose, striking in the same manner all which they overtake; thus eighteen or twenty men will with ease fell 7 or 800 oxen in one hour. When they are tired of the exercise, they dismount to rest, and afterwards, without danger, knock on the head the oxen which they have wounded. After taking the skin, and sometimes the tongue and suet, they leave the rest for the birds of prey.

WILD DOGS. These animals have descended from some of the domestic kinds that have gone astray, and have multiplied to an excessive degree in the countries near Buenos Ayres. They live under ground, in holes, which may be easily discovered by the quantity of bones heaped round them. It may be with propriety supposed, that some time or another, when the wild oxen are destroyed, so that the dogs cannot obtain them, they will fall upon men. One of the governors of Buenos Ayres thought this subject so well worth his attention, that he sent some soldiers to destroy the wild dogs, and they killed a great number of them with their muskets. But on their return, they were insulted by the children of the town, who are very insolent; they called them *mataperros*, which means, dog-killers: whence it has happened that the men, disheartened by a false shame, have never returned to that kind of hunting.

HORSES. The horses of Buenos Ayres are excellent; they possess all the spirit of the Spanish horses, from which they have descended, have an uncommonly safe foot, and are surprisingly agile. Their walk is so quick, and their steps so long, that at this pace they equal the trotting of the horses in France. Their step consists in raising exactly, and at the same instant, the fore and hind foot, and instead of putting the latter at the spot where they had just rested the opposite fore foot, they carry it much farther, which renders their motion nearly double as rapid as that of horses in general, while it is much more easy for the rider. They are not distinguishable for their beauty, but their lightness, gentleness, courage, and regularity, may be boasted of. The inhabitants make no provisions, either of hay or straw, for the support of these animals, the mildness of the climate allowing them to graze in the fields all the year round.

TOWNS.

BUENOS AYRES, the capital of the whole province of the river La Plata, is situated 210 miles from its mouth, in 69 deg. 10 min. W. lon. and 34 deg. 35 min. S. lat. Its site is very handsome. From the north side may be seen the river, the width of which is beyond the reach of the eye. The environs consist of nothing but extensive and beautiful fields, always covered with verdure.

The port of Buenos Ayres is always exposed to the winds, on account of which vessels cannot approach very near to the town; while the boats or small craft which go to it, are obliged to make a *detour*, and enter a stream which empties itself into the main river; the water in this is two or three fathoms deep; but when the tide has ebbed in the great river, the branch in question cannot be entered.

Buenos Ayres is the residence of a viceroy and a bishop. It is supposed to contain 3000 houses and 40,000 inhabitants*. This city is now the grand emporium of all the commerce of the provinces of Peru; and the goods are conveyed thither in waggons drawn by horses. The conductors travel in caravans, on account of the Pampas Indians, who are very troublesome to travellers. This city is watered by several large rivers, all of which empty themselves into that of La Plata. It has a fine square surrounded with superb buildings, and a fortress on the river, which is the residence of the governor. The streets are perfectly regular, with foot-paths on each side.

The immense country which constitutes the province of Buenos Ayres, was formerly subject to the viceroy of Peru; but in 1778, it was erected into a separate government, which includes the greater part of the country adjacent to Peru.

Formerly the citizens of Buenos Ayres had no country-houses; and except peaches, none of the finer sorts of fruits were produced there. At present, there are few persons of opulence but have villas, and cultivate in their gardens all kinds of fruit, culinary plants, and flowers. The houses are in general not very high; but most of them are built in a light and beautiful manner.

At Buenos Ayres, the men as well as the women dress after the Spanish mode, and all the fashions are brought thither from the mother country. The ladies in Buenos Ayres are reckoned the most agreeable and handsome of all South America.

* Sir Home Popham, in his circular letter to the British merchants, estimates the number of inhabitants at 70,000, and Helms at only 25 or 30,000.

Until the year 1747, no regular post was established either in Buenos Ayres, or the whole province of Tucuman, notwithstanding the great intercourse and trade with the neighbouring provinces: but, in 1748, the Viceroy Don Andonaegui instituted regular posts.

Buenos Ayres is well supplied with provisions; of fresh meat in particular there is so great an abundance, that it is frequently distributed gratis to the poor. The river water is rather muddy, but it soon becomes clear and drinkable, by being kept in large tubs of earthen vessels. Of fish, too, there is great abundance.

Neither in the district of Buenos Ayres, nor in Tucuman, does any snow ever fall: sometimes it freezes a little, so as to cover the water with a thin coating of ice, which is collected and preserved with great care, for the purpose of cooling their liquors.

That the climate of Buenos Ayres is very salubrious, appears from the proportion of the births to the deaths; and consequently the city has not been improperly named. In June, July, August, and September, however, fogs arise from the river, which affect the lungs and breast. The vehement winds too, which blow from the pampas, or plains, and are therefore called *Pamperos*, prove very troublesome to the inhabitants.

MONTE-VIDEO. This is a town on the river of La Plata, about sixty miles from its mouth. It has a large and convenient harbour, and the climate is mild and agreeable. The markets are plentifully supplied with fish and meat at a very cheap rate. Its principal trade is in leather. It is 150 miles from Buenos Ayres, to which you may pass by land or water, and in 34. deg. 56 min. 9. sec. S. latitude.

SAN-SACRAMENTO. This is a town opposite Buenos Ayres: it was founded by the Portuguese, about ninety miles from Monte-Video, and was ceded to Spain in 1778.

SANTA-FE is a middling-sized town, about 240 miles from Buenos Ayres.

MANNERS OF THE SPANIARDS. Don Perneti has given a curious picture of the Spaniards of Monte-Video. To sleep, talk, smoke a segar, and ride on horseback, are the occupations in which they pass three-fourths of the day. The great abundance of provisions gives facility to their idleness, besides which, there are amongst them many persons of property, so that they all appear anxious to live in style, and have nothing to do.

The women during the whole of the morning sit on stools in their entrance halls, having under their feet, first, a cane mat, and over that a piece of the stuff made by the Indians, or a tiger's skin. They amuse themselves with playing on a guitar,

or some similar instrument, which they accompany with their voice, while the negresses prepare the dinner.

In these countries jealousy does not disturb either sex. The men publicly acknowledge their illegitimate children, who become the heirs of their fathers. There is no shame attached to bastardy; because the laws so far authorize promiscuous intercourse, as to grant to the children which result from it the title of gentlefolks.

The women, though covered by a veil in public places, live at home with as much freedom, to say the least of it, as females do in France; they receive company as they do in France; and do not suffer themselves to be pressed to dance, sing, or play on the harp, guitar, or mandoline. In this respect they are much more complaisant than French women, if we may credit the assertion of Don Permetti. When they are not occupied in dancing, they sit continually on the stools already mentioned, which they sometimes place outside the door. The men are not allowed to sit among them, unless they are invited, and such a favour is considered as a great familiarity.

At Monte-Video, a lively and very lascivious dance is much practised; it is called *calenda*, and the negroes, as well as the mulattoes, whose constitutions are sanguine, are excessively fond of it. This dance was introduced into America by the negroes who were imported from the kingdom of Ardra, on the coast of Guinea, and the Spaniards have adopted it in all their establishments. It is, however, so indecent as to shock and astonish those who are not in the habit of seeing it performed. The accounts which have been given of this licentious recreation are so different from what is conceived in Europe, that a particular detail of them would resemble a story of La Fontaine, rather than a matter of fact.

The common people, in which are included the mulattoes and negroes, wear, instead of a cloak, a piece of stuff, in stripes of different colours, which appears like a sack, having only a hole at top for the admission of the head; it hangs over the arms down to the wrist, and reaches, both before and behind, down to the calf of the leg; it is fringed all round at the bottom. The men of every class wear it when they ride on horseback, and find it much more convenient than the common cloak. The governor shewed one of these habiliments to Messrs. Bongainville, Permetti, &c. which was embroidered with gold and silver, and had cost him upwards of 300 piastres. The same dresses are made at Chili, in such a style as to cost 2000; and it is from that country that they have been imported at Monte-Video. This dress is known by the name of *poncho* or *chony*: it secures the wearer from rain, is not ruffled by the wind, and not only

serves him for a coverlet at night, but also for a carpet when he rests in the fields.

PROVINCE OF TUCUMAN.

THIS province extends along the Andes, opposite to Chili, which it separates from Paraguay and Buenos Ayres. It is situated between the 3d and 24th parallel of S. latitude.

ACCOUNT OF THE SOIL, MOUNTAINS, AND RIVERS.

The ramifications of the Andes extend along the northern part of this province, in consequence of which its climate is very cold. The southern part is nothing but a vast plain; and it appears that the whole of Tucuman is formed of low grounds: for several rivers, when they reach it, not being able to pass onwards to the sea, form lakes in different parts. This country bears a strong resemblance to Tartary and Little Bucharía. The two principal rivers of Tucuman are the *Rio Salado*, which, after passing through a swampy country, joins the river of *La Plata* and the *Rio Dolce*, which empties itself into the lake of *Porongas*. The valley of *Palcipas*, which runs between two branches of the Andes, gives passage to a considerable river, which empties itself into a lake: all the rivers of the province of Cordova run into sandy plains, except the *Tercero*, which empties itself into *La Plata*.

CLIMATE. The climate of Tucuman is in winter very cold and dry. The spring is announced by violent rains; and the heat of summer is great and sudden. This temperature, which is natural in a country surrounded by high mountains, is not agreeable, but the people are accustomed to it, and Tucuman is considered to be an uncommonly salubrious country. The environs of the lakes and marshes ought, however, to be excepted.

PRODUCTIONS. In the parts where the plains are fertilized by rivers, the country is covered with excellent pasturage, and every year they afford an abundant produce of oxen, sheep, stags, and other cattle. Game is so abundant, that it is met with at almost every step, and the animals are frequently taken by the hand. Pigeons and partridges are uncommonly numerous, though it must be admitted, that they are not so good as those of Europe. Maize, vines, cotton, and indigo, are cultivated with great success; and the forests between the *Rio Dolce* and the *Salado* contain immense quantities of bees.

There are said to be in Tucuman two mines of gold, one of silver, two of copper, and two of lead; the people manufacture

a quantity of woollen and cotton stuffs; and a fine mine of rock salt has lately been discovered.

Towns. The principal towns in this province are the *Salta of Tucuman*, which is the residence of a governor, and is situated in a very fertile valley; Jujui, Rioja, San-Fernando, Saint-Jacques de l'Esterro, San-Miguel, and Cordova, the last of which is the residence of a bishop, and the best town in the province. The fathers of the company of Jesus had a celebrated university at Cordova, where the young Spaniards of South America were sent to be instructed in the sciences. There are several other colonies of Spaniards dispersed through the immense plains of Tucuman, which take the name of towns, though the inhabitants are not numerous. It is said that they are from 150 to 180 miles distant from each other; and the roads which lead to them, are so difficult and barren as sometimes to require twenty days to travel from one to the other; and even the environs of the towns are said to be so irregular or uneven, that a corregidor belonging to one of them, who was riding in his carriage, had one of his eyes knocked out by the branch of a tree, which entered the coach window.

ACCOUNT OF THE VICEROYALTY OF CHILI.

THE following description relates to what is commonly called the *kingdom of Chili*; which is *Chili proper*, that lies to the west of Andes; as well as *New Chili*, and the province of *Cuyo*, to the east of those mountains.

It has already been observed, that Cuyo and New Chili are dependant on the viceroyalty of La Plata; while the presidency of St. Jago only includes Chili proper. But the judiciary and ecclesiastical division of those places is very different from those of the other governments and vice-royalties.

SITUATION AND EXTENT. Chili proper lies on the shore of the Pacific Ocean, 'etween the 23d and 45th deg. of S. lat. and the 304th and 308th deg. of lon. to the east of the first meridian of the isle of Ferro. Its length from north to south is between 1500 and 1650 miles; and its width from east to west about 240 miles, which comprises the chain of the Andes. It is bounded to the west by the Pacific Ocean; to the north by Peru; to the east by Tucuman; and to the south by the countries of Magellan. It is separated from all these regions by the Andes.

The province of Cuyo lies between Chili and Tucuman,

from the 30th to 35th parallel of latitude. New Chili extends indefinitely to the south of the province of Cuyo, towards the Pampas of Buenos Ayres, and the deserts of Patagonia.

CLIMATE. 'This kingdom is one of the first in all America. Its climate is temperate and salubrious; its soil is fertile, and it always has a clear sky. Its seasons are regular; the spring, for example, commences in September; the summer, in December; the autumn in March, and the winter in June. At the commencement of the spring there are abundant falls of rain, but seldom or ever in the other seasons. The summer is serene, and passes without storms or tempests. The want of rain does no injury to the country: for the moisture that is absorbed from the heavy falls in spring, and the abundance of dew which descends every night in summer, are sufficient for fructification. The summer season in these parts would be insupportably hot, if the air were not cooled by the wind which blows from the sea, as well as by that which comes from the Andes, the summits of which are always covered with snow. The cold of winter is very moderate inasmuch that snow is scarcely ever known to fall in the maritime provinces: and it is not seen once in five years in those which are nearest to the Andes.

METALS. There are in Chili many sorts of metals, and mineral, which has hitherto been little used; and gold in particular abounds there; but it is only obtained in the provinces belonging to the Spaniards. There are two ways of obtaining the gold from the mine, which are either by breaking the rocks that contain it, with men and horses, or washing the sand which is conveyed by the current of the rivers. The first method is preferable, because it is more advantageous, but it is very expensive; for, besides the fatigue experienced by the workmen, it requires several machines, and particularly a great mill, to reduce to powder the metallic minerals.

The other manner of obtaining gold is generally adopted by those who have not sufficient property to establish the first method already mentioned; they then resort to the second, which is to use a bowl, which they call *panacea*, in which they wash it well, and collect the particles of gold that have subsided by their weight. But as they do not use mercury, they lose more than half of the valuable metal. The profit is, nevertheless, very considerable.

Some silver mines have also been discovered in this country; but as they require much greater fatigue and expence than the gold mines, they are little attended to. The following is the gross method which the inhabitants employ for separating this

metal from its heterogenous parts. They first reduce the ore to powder by means of a mill, then sift it through a very fine wire-sieve, mix it with mercury, salt, and mud, and inclose it in an ox-hide, when they pour water on it for some time; it then forms a mass, which during eight or ten days is malleated, and trodden under feet twice a day. After these operations the mass is put in a stone trough, where water is poured upon it, which carries off the ore into pits that are formed under the trough; and here the amalgama of silver and mercury is precipitated in whitish globules. These globes are then taken out, and put in a linen bag, which is squeezed hard, in order to express the mercury, after which the workmen give to the mass, which is as soft as dough, such forms as their caprice may dictate. But, as mercury, notwithstanding the pressure, has not entirely been forced from the silver, they throw the mass into a well-heated furnace, where the mercury is volatilized, and the silver remains pure, white, and solid.

The copper-mines in this country are as abundant as those of gold, with which, indeed, they are often mixed; but the people only work those that are very rich in ore. They adopt the following methods to obtain the copper:—At first they dig a deep ditch, which they pave with a mixture of plaister and calcined bones, which resists heat to such a degree, that there are no cracks in it through which the metal can escape. On each side of the ditch, which is square, are built four walls, which, at the surface of the ground, close in the form of an arch, and make a kind of an oven. A hole or door is left at the top by which to put in the metal, and observe the state of its fusion; some small apertures are also left to give vent to the smoke. The fire is then blown to a great heat by bellows, worked by water. The furnace is heated for several days before the metal is put in, and even then large logs of wood are added to it. At length, when the copper is in a complete state of fusion, a door is opened at the bottom of the furnace, from which it issues, like a torrent of fire, and fills the trenches that have been made for its reception.

Iron, though abundant in this country, is not explored.

QUADREPEDS. The *guanaco*, *chilbuéque*, *guémul*, and the *Peruvian sheep*, are species of animals which very much resemble each other, and may be considered as belonging to the genus of the camel, from which they differ by not having the hump. The *chilbuéque* is an animal between the *guanaco* and the European sheep. Its head, neck, and tail, are like those of the *guanaco*, and the rest like the sheep, except that the animal is altogether about twice as big: hence the Indians call it *chilibuéque*, which means *Chili sheep*, in order to distinguish

it from the lama, or sheep of Peru. The *chilibuèque* is a domestic animal, which is held in much esteem by the Indians; and in their religious ceremonies and treaties of peace, they sacrifice it as a token of friendship. Its flesh is as good as that of common sheep, and its wool is excellent. This animal is of four colours, viz. white, grey, black, and ash colour; but it does not increase much, on account of the difficulty of conception on the part of the female, which is obliged to be kept up before she will receive the male.

The *guémul* is, in form and shape, like a *chilibuèque*, with the exception of its tail, which resembles that of a stag: it is wilder than the *guanaco*, and almost always herds on the steepest parts of the Andes.

The Peruvian sheep lives in the most temperate parts of the country, but particularly in the provinces of Copiapo and Coquimbo. It must necessarily be very prolific, for notwithstanding the continual massacre to which it is subjected, it is always to be found in great numbers.

The *viscaque* is of the size and almost the same figure as a large rabbit, except that its legs are shorter: its hair is soft, and of a grey and black colour, while its tail, which resembles that of a fox, is furnished with hair so hard and sharp that they seem like bristles.

There is another animal called *chinna*, which is also about the size of a rabbit, but in figure it resembles a little dog. This animal enters the houses in the country, eats whatever it finds, and roves about amongst the dogs, which do not disturb it any more than their masters; in fact, the people respect and fear it, though it does no harm, either with its teeth or its claws. The circumstance which places it in security is, that it has a little bladder at the root of the tail near the anus, which contains an excessively fetid liquor, that it darts towards those who attack it; and the smell of it is so contagious that it renders a chamber uninhabitable for ever, if a drop happens to fall in it.

The *arda* is a species of field mouse, though of the size of a cat, and is only found in the province of Copiapo. This animal is tolerably docile, and is covered with a thick ash-coloured wool, as delicate as the finest cotton.

TOPOGRAPHY OF THE PROVINCES AND TOWNS.

COPIAPO. This corregidory, the principal town of which is *Saint Francois de la Selva*, borders on that of Atacama, in Peru, and to the north and west it is limited by the Pacific

Ocean. Its length is 180 miles from north to south; and its breadth between 60 and 90 miles from east to west. There is but little rain in this district, nevertheless it produces all sorts of corn and fruits of the finest quality. Its climate is always mild, and it contains many mines of copper, sulphur, loadstone, gold, silver, and lapis lazuli. There is a shrub which grows on the banks of the rivers in this country called *paraxabolo*, and which, when reduced by heat, answers the purpose of wax for sealing bottles. A quantity of large eels is caught on the coast, and the chief articles of exportation are nitre and sulphur, the latter of which is so good, that it requires no purification.

Coquimbo. This corregidory borders to the east, on that of Tucuman; to the south, on that of Quillota; and to the west, on the Pacific Ocean. It is 246 miles long, by 120 broad, from east to west. There are bred in it numbers of guanacos and Peruvian sheep; and its vegetable productions are wine, corn, and excellent oil. It contains many mines of gold, silver, copper, lead, mercury, lime, and salt; and those of copper supply Spain with the metal from which its artillery is cast. The country also affords excellent horses, and ox-hides, with which a considerable commerce is carried on at Lima.

The capital of Coquimbo, which is also called *Serena*, is three quarters of a mile from the sea, and its climate is that of a continual spring. All its streets are even, and its houses are ornamented with beautiful gardens and walks of myrtle trees. Its port is commodious and much frequented: it is 45 miles from the city of Concepcion, and 174 from Saint Jago, in 24 deg. 54 min. S. lat.

Cuyo. This is a great corregidory, the capital of which is Mendoza. In the eastern parts of Chili, it is called *Trasmon-tano*: it is bounded to the east by Pampas; to the north by Bioxa in Tucuman; on the south by the territories of the Puelch Indians and other savages; and on the west by the Andes. This province is extremely fertile, and besides abundance of fruits, it also affords much corn, wine and brandy. The wine is sent to Buenos Ayres and Monte-Video; its colour is like that of a mixture of rhubarb and senna, and its taste is similar to that composition; but it probably acquires both these qualities from the goat's skins, in which it is conveyed; and scarcely any other kind is drank in all Paraguay. It is a good stomachic. This country abounds in all sorts of cattle, besides Peruvian sheep, and the *Reha Americana*, or Magellanic ostriches. The flesh of the wild boar and the he-mule of these parts is excellent, and all other kinds of provision are uncommonly cheap. There are also silver, copper, and gold mines. The inhabitants are very adroit at hunting, and part-

cularly in chasing ostriches, the exercise of which renders them so agile, that they can keep up with a horse at a gallop.

QUILLOTA. The capital from which this corregidory takes its name, is called *St. Martin de la Concha*. It is situated about 27 miles from Valparayso, and is bounded to the north by Coquimbo. It is 7.5 miles from north to south, and 63 from east to west. It produces wine, corn, cattle, and abundant mines of gold and copper. The inhabitants are employed in making ropes for ships, as well as soda and soap, which are articles of commerce.

VALPARAYSO. The soil of this town is but ordinary in point of fertility, as it consists mostly of calcareous hillocks, which rise one above the other like the steps of a terrace. The vallies and plains between these rows of steep hills produce excellent fruits, particularly the Quillota apples.

Valparayso, which is a port, and a good town for trade, is 90 miles from Saint Jago, the capital of Chili. This central position renders it the principal medium of commerce for the whole viceroyalty. There are exported annually for Lima nearly 15,000 tons of wheat, either in grain or flour; and a considerable quantity of ropes, salt-fish, and fruits. The merchants of Valparayso receive in exchange sugar, tobacco, indigo, and spirituous liquors.

The houses of Valparayso only consist of ground floors, on account of the frequent earthquakes. Their walls are constructed of mud plastered with mortar, but they are convenient, appropriate to the climate, and in general well furnished. The batteries at the port are mounted with seventy pieces of cannon; but Captain Vancouver asserts, that three frigates would beat them to atoms.

ACONCAGUA. This corregidory, the capital of which is *St. Felipe el Real*, borders to the north, on a part of that of Quillota; and to the south on the jurisdiction of Saint Jago. It produces a quantity of corn. Some barracks have been built on the mountains, through which a road leads to Mendoza, and these edifices serve as a shelter to travellers, who are supplied at them with biscuits and salt beef. In consequence of this regulation couriers pass to and from Saint Jago at all seasons of the year.

MELIPILLA. This jurisdiction, the chief place of which is *Logrono*, borders to the east on that of Saint Jago, and is limited to the west by the sea. It is not very extensive. Its productions are corn, wine, and cattle; and an abundance of fish is caught on the coast.

BACANGUA. This is a corregidory, the chief place of which is *Santa-Cruz de Triana*; but it is sometimes called Bacangua.

It borders on that of St. Jago, and reaches as far as the sea. It is 120 miles from east to west, and 39 from north to south. It is well watered, abounds in fruit and fish, and contains some mines of gold and rock salt, as well as some medicinal baths, which are beneficial for various diseases.

SAINT JAGO, or more properly *San Yago*. This is a corregidory, which is 78 miles long from east to west, and 60 broad from north to south. It has many gold mines, but they are only worked in summer, which is in December, January, February, and March. About 60 miles from the capital is the great mine of *Kempu*; and in the valley called *Blanche*, they breed silk-worms. At the mountain of *Delcurato de Colina* there are thirty-four gold mines, at which people work every day; and the province also contains some mines of copper and tin, three of silver, and one of lead. At *Monte-Negro* there has lately been discovered a quarry of jasper. Vancouver asserts, that the soil, from Valparayso to Saint Jago, is a continual ascent, and that the cold from the mountains is sensibly felt. The climate of Saint Jago is temperate and salubrious; the environs of the town are covered with gardens and vineyards, while the eye extends farther over vast grazing plains, and the interesting perspective is terminated by the summits of the Andes, which are covered with snow.

SAINT JAGO, the capital of the whole kingdom of Chili, is situated in 38 deg. 40 min. 11 sec. S. lat. and is 90 miles from the port of Valparayso. The town is said to be more than three miles in circumference. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and some of them are tolerably wide, and three quarters of a mile long. Its population is estimated at 30,500 souls. Some of the edifices in Saint Jago are worthy of mention, on account of their magnificence, though the rules of architecture have not been exactly observed in their construction; the principal are, the mint, the new cathedral, and some churches, though there are several splendid houses belonging to individuals. These all consist only of a ground floor, though the apartments are capacious and lofty. This manner of building, which is, as has been observed, adopted from the fear of earthquakes, is probably in the end more convenient, salubrious, and even more magnificent than the European method of building several floors above each other.

Saint Jago is the residence of a captain-general, who is likewise the civil magistrate of the kingdom of Chili; of a bishop who enjoys a large revenue, and a still greater degree of respect, of a supreme tribunal, an university, and a college of nobles. There are twelve monasteries and seven numerics in this capital.

The manner of living at Saint Jago exhibits all the characteristics of gaiety, hospitality, and good nature, which so advantageously distinguish the Spaniards in the New World as well as in Europe. The women there are handsome brunettes, but a gothic dress rather disfigures them. The conversation in the first circles of the towns seems to partake of the simplicity and freedom which prevail in the country parts of Europe. Dancing and music are here, as well as throughout America, the favourite amusements of both sexes. The luxury of dress and equipages is carried to a great height; but in the furnishing and fitting up the houses, more regard is had to pomp than to neatness and elegance.

COLCAGUA. This corregidory, the capital of which is *Fernando*, is bounded to the east by the Cordeliers or Andes; to the west by the South Sea; and to the south by the province of Maule. It is 120 miles from east to west, and 90 from north to south. It contains mines of gold and copper; and abounds in cattle, horses, and mules. Hot springs are frequently met with in this country, which are excellent for curing leprosy, wounds, and syphilitic diseases.

CHILLAN. This place, though a capital, is a very small and mean looking town: it lies in 36 deg. 6 min. S. lat. At a short distance from it there is a volcano, which bears the same name.

MAULE. This province, the capital of which is Talca, is bounded on the east by the Cordeliers, by the district of Concepcion, from which it is separated by the river Maule; and on the west by the south sea. It is 138 miles from north to south, and 90 from east to west. It contains many gold mines, but particularly that of Mount Chivato, which is very famous for the quantity of pure metal it affords. The country furnishes all sorts of corn and cattle in abundance, but particularly goats, the skin of which is made into Morocco leather, and gives rise to a considerable commerce. A kind of wine, which is much valued, is also produced in this country, as is likewise tobacco. There is also a pitch mine, and a quantity of very white salt is manufactured in these parts.

CONCEPTION. This corregidory extends from the river Maule to that of Biobio, which is its limit, at the inhabited parts of Chili. Its climate is temperate, and the four seasons of the year are distinguished as in Europe, though at inverse periods. The soil is very fertile: the wheat yields in the proportion of sixty grains to one, the vines are equally abundant, and the fields are covered with cattle. In 1787, the price of a large ox was eight piastres; and that of a sheep three quarters of a piastre. The men are very robust, courageous, and adroit

at riding, as are the women : but they are particularly clever at throwing a running-noose over the different animals which they hunt, without ever missing their mark.

The town of La Concepcion having been overwhelmed by the sea, in consequence of an earthquake, a new one has been built at some distance from the shore, which is indiscriminately called La Mocha, or New Concepcion. The inhabitants are about 10,000 in number. It is the residence of an intendant and a military commander, and the authority of these two officers extends over the province of La Concepcion, which comprises the south of Chili; but its limits are not precisely known.

Talcaguana is a little town, situated at the shore of the bay of La Concepcion, which is one of the most convenient harbours on the coast of Chili. The fortresses of Araucos, Tucapel, and others, were intended as a check to the incursions of the Indians, who are now submissive and peaceable. Our account of this vast and interesting country will terminate with

VALDIVIA. This is a corregidory, the capital of which bears the same name. It is situated on the bank of a river, and of a fortified eminence. It is considered one of the best places in all America. It has a good and well-defended port; its fields are very fertile; it furnishes excellent timber for building, and contains a great number of gold mines.

ACCOUNT OF THE VICEROYALTY OF PERU.

THE viceroyalty of Peru comprehends the audiencia of Lima, the province of La Paz, and the presidency of San-Yago. This presidency is, however, separated from the other parts of the viceroyalty, as has already been shewn, by the audiencia of Charcas, which belongs to the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres.—The two former occupy the principal part of the ancient Peru.

This great empire, the foundation of which by the Incas remains enveloped in the obscurity of a series of fables, and of an uncertain tradition, has lost much of its local grandeur since the time when it was stripped, on the north side, of the provinces which form the kingdom of Quito, and afterwards of those which, towards the east, constitute the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Its present extent in length runs, north and south, over a space of from 1200 to 1350 miles, from two degrees to nearly twenty-three degrees of south latitude; and its greatest breadth is from 300 to 360 miles, east and west,

i. e. about 13 degrees of W. lon. The river of Guayaquil divides it from the new kingdom of Granada on the north side. The depopulated territory of Atacama separates it from the kingdom of Chili towards the south. Another horrible desert, of more than fifteen hundred miles extent, separates it towards the east from the provinces of Paraguay and Buenos Ayres; and lastly, the Pacific Ocean washes its western shores.

A chain of barren and rugged mountains; several sandy plains, which in a manner reach from one extent of the coast to the other; and several lakes of many leagues in extent, some of which are situated on the summits of the above chain of mountains, occupy a great part of the Peruvian territory. Throughout, the breaks and the vallies, which enjoy the benefit of irrigation, present to the view an extensive range of delightful plains, replete with villages and towns, and the climate of which is highly salubrious. That of the elevated spots of La Sierra is extremely cold. In the pampas, or plains, of Bombou, Fahrenheit's thermometer is constantly at from thirty-four to forty degrees above zero.

The population of Peru does not much exceed a million of souls, and so far as relates to the original casts, is composed of Spaniards, Indians, and Negroes. The secondary species best known, and proceeding from a mixture of these three, are the mulatto, the offspring of the Spaniard and negro woman; the quarteron, of the mulatto woman and Spaniard; and the mestizo, of the Spaniard and Indian woman. The final subdivisions which are formed by the successive mixtures, are as many as the different possible combinations of these primitive races.

The commerce of Peru has been considerably augmented, since it has, by the arrival of the merchant vessels of Spain by Cape Horn, and by the grant of an unrestrained commerce, freed itself from the oppression under which it groaned in the time of the galeons, and of the fairs of Porto-Bello and Panama. Prior to that epoch, the bulky and overgrown capitals circulated through, and were in a manner lost in, a few hands; and while the little trader tyrannized over the people, by regulating, at his own will, the prices of the various productions and commodities, he himself received the law from the monopolizing wholesale dealer. The negociations of the capital with the interior were then, in a great measure, dependant on the intelligence and the decisions of the magistrates; and the commerce with Spain owed its best security to the circulation of the silver entered in the bills of lading. Commerce, on the other hand, being at this time subdivided into so many smaller branches,

maintains a greater number of merchants; at the same time that the fortunes which accrue from it are not so numerous. It is necessary that a commercial man should combine his plans skilfully, and extend his speculations, to be enabled to acquire a handsome property.

The manufactures of this country consist almost entirely of a few friezes, the use of which is in a manner confined to the Indians and negroes. There are besides an inconsiderable number of manufactures of hats, cotton cloths, drinking glasses, &c. which do not, however, occupy much space in the scale of the riches of Peru. Sugar, Vicuna wool, cotton, Peruvian bark, copper, and cocoa (it is to be observed, however, that the two latter articles, as well as a considerable part of the Peruvian bark, are sent hither from Guayaquil, &c.), are the only commodities, the produce of our mines excepted, which we export.

The mines are the principal, it may indeed be said, the only source of the riches of Peru. Notwithstanding the little industry which is employed in working them, and the small crop which commerce affords to the miners, 534,000 marks of silver, and 6,380 of gold, were smelted and refined last year (1790) in the royal mint of Lima; and 5,206,906 piastres, in both materials, were coined there.

From the mines of Gualgayoc, and from that of Pasco, about the one half of the silver which is annually smelted, coined, and wrought, is extracted. The mine of Guantajaya is abundant in ores and rich metallic veins, but does not yield in proportion, in consequence of the dearth of every necessary, as well for working as for convenience and subsistence. On account also of its distance from the capital, the benefits which would otherwise arise from it are lost; the ores of thirty marks the *caxon**, do not pay themselves; and the same may be said of the products of the smaller and more superficial veins, which occasionally present themselves, and in which the silver is chiselled out.

LIMA. The audience of Lima is divided into five provinces or districts, viz. Tuxillo, Gualanga, Lima, Cusco, Arequipa, and we may add the province of La Paz.

The province of Lima extends along the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and is subject to the jurisdiction of the viceroy and archbishop of Lima. It is subdivided into several subordinate districts, among which the principal is *Conchucos*. This district is 156 miles in length, by 60 in breadth. It abounds in fruits of various kinds, and also produces luxuriant crops of

*The *caxon* contains 6,250 pounds.

wheat, maize, and barley; but the chief wealth of the inhabitants consists in the possession of numerous flocks, of which the wool constitutes the chief article of their commerce. There are also some mines of very pure gold and silver, as well as of sulphur, in different parts of Conchucos.

Santar, another of these subordinate divisions, is bounded on the north by Truxillo, and on the west by the South Sea. It is 120 miles in length, and 35 in breadth. Along this part of the coast there are different safe and commodious harbours; the chief commerce of Santa consists of wool-bearing animals, cotton, and hogs-lard, for which the merchants find a ready market at Lima; there are some sugar-houses and distilleries established in the capital. The climate in this district is rather warm; it abounds with mines containing loadstones.

Caxatumba, the third subdivision, is 102 miles long, and 96 broad; like Santa, it abounds in fruit of every kind; but the chief dependance of the inhabitants is upon their flocks and herds. Their trade is mostly confined to woollen stuffs, some of which are dyed with the cochineal found in the neighbourhood. In this district, there are several mines of alum, copperas, and silver.

Guamco, the fourth of these subdivisions, is blessed with a mild and salubrious climate and a fertile soil. Here cotton is raised in great abundance, and at the foot of the mountains vast quantities of cocoa, which is sold at Tarma. This district is intersected by two large rivers, which from a junction near the capital, bearing the same name as the district: the preserves made here are much esteemed at Lima.

The district of Tarma is bounded on the north by Guamco. Here the climate is colder than in any other part of the province of Lima; of the wool procured from their numerous flocks, the inhabitants manufacture stuffs of different qualities, which constitute the principal staple of their commerce. There are also some productive silver mines in this district. Government has found it necessary to constitute forts at different points, in order to prevent the incursions of the Indians from the mountains. Chancay, or Annedo, which is the last of these subdivisions, enjoys a considerable diversity of climate, being warm towards the sea, and colder on the side adjoining the mountains. The inhabitants of this district cultivate maize in great abundance, with which they fatten hogs and pigeons in vast numbers for the market of Lima, and which produces to them more than 300,000 piastres (53,750 pounds sterling). In this district the land is manured with the dung of a bird, termed huanaco, which inhabits the small islands near the coast, and such is the fertility it gives to the soil, that if a handful of maize be scattered at

random it will produce a two hundred fold. The country likewise abounds with salt-pits, from which the adjoining provinces are furnished with this necessary article ; it is given to their animals as an antidote against an insect which attacks their livers, so as most frequently to occasion their death.

In a greater or less degree, the arid mountains of Peru may be considered as an inexhaustible elaboratory of gold and silver. With the exception of the mine of Guantajaya, situated near the port of Iquique, at a distance of two leagues from the sea, the richest mines are comprehended in the most rigid and insalubrious parts of *La Sierra*, where the absence of plants and shrubs, or, in other words, the infertility itself of the cold soil they occupy, is in general a sure indication which leads to their discovery

As the Indians were ignorant, not only of the invention of money, but likewise of the astonishing powers of hydraulics applied to machinery, and of the secrets of mineralogy, more especially as they refer to chemistry and subterraneous geometry, the metals they extracted were not of a very considerable amount. The last emperor of Peru could not muster for his ransom, the value of a million and a half of piastres in gold and silver ; and the plunder of Cusco was not estimated at a greater sum than ten millions. This was a small quantity for so many years of research and accumulation, but immense for the simple and unique process of collecting, among the sands of the rivers, the minute particles of gold that had been swept along by the waters, and the little pure silver that could be dug out of a pit, which, in many instances, did not exceed a fathom in depth.

The most moderate computations of the Spanish writers, among whom may be particularly cited Moncada, Navarrete, and Ustariz, fix at nine thousand millions of piastres the sums which Spain received from America during the two hundred and forty-eight years that followed its conquest up to that of 1740. The mine of Potosi alone, during the first ninety years of its being worked, produced 395,619,000 piastres ;—a prodigious extraction, which appears more surprising, when it is considered that metallurgy had hitherto been treated, not according to the principles and rules of art, but according to the adoption and practice of an ancient and blind usage.

As the provinces of *La Sierra* annexed to Buenos Ayres are the most abundant in mines, and on that account the most populous and steril, it is necessary that the consumers, whose numbers are very considerable, should be supplied with the natural productions of the coast, the only part of the territory of Peru where the lands can be profitably cultivated. Are-

quipa is, by its proximity, the source of these supplies; and Cusco administers, by its manufactories, the baizes, and other articles of clothing which the population demands. It ought, however, to be observed, that the augmented introduction of the manufactures of Europe, by the river of La Plata, has latterly occasioned this branch of commerce to decline in a sensible manner; the camlets, fustians, second cloths, &c. imported by this channel, having been sold at little more than their prime cost, so as to have ruined, by their competition, the baizes and stuffs of the manufacture of the country.

Lima, which is the capital of the kingdom of Peru, is justly regarded as one of the handsomest, largest, most populous, and richest cities in the world. It is termed by the Spaniards the *Queen of Cities*, though a commercial spirit does not prevail in it to the same extent as in Mexico and Buenos Ayres; nor are the inhabitants equally industrious as those of Puebla, of Los Angeles, or Quito. M. Humboldt highly extols the genius, the liberal sentiments, and natural gaiety of the inhabitants.

This city is situated nearly six miles from the Pacific Ocean, between the 78th and 79th deg. of W. lon. and 12 deg. 2 min. 31 sec. S. lat. The port called *Callao*, is six miles distance from the city, in a plain termed the valley of Rima, or sometimes the valley of Lima. This valley is intersected by a river of the same name, over which is thrown a beautiful stone bridge consisting of five arches. The city is of a triangular figure, surrounded with brick walls, having 34 bastions; it is more than two miles in length on the side next the river. The streets are wide, and most of them run in a straight direction. The houses are low, on account of the frequency of earthquakes, but are highly ornamented, and of an elegant appearance; they have generally gardens adjoining to them. The royal square is extremely handsome, and in the middle is placed a beautiful fountain of bronze, surmounted by an image of Fame, executed in a very good style. This square is from 500 to 600 feet in length, and is surrounded by superb edifices.

There is one university in Lima, dedicated to St. Mark; this city is the residence of a viceroy, who is president of the royal audience; besides an ecclesiastical tribunal, there is also a supreme tribunal of audience, composed of a president, a fiscal, and two examiners. The climate is here healthy and extremely agreeable, and though no rain falls, the ground is watered by a gentle dew termed *gerana*; a variety of the most delicious fruits abound in the vicinity of Lima; and, in short, nothing is here wanting which can contribute to the comfort or the luxury of the inhabitants.

A treasury is established here for receiving the duty on the produce of the mines, as well as all the taxes paid by the Indians to the king of Spain.

The trade carried on by the marchants of Lima, is represented by Alcedo to be very extensive ; but this author appears to have overlooked the great decay of this trade, occasioned by the growing prosperity of Buenos Ayres, which is much more conveniently situated for the European commerce. Besides, the government has established at this last place, a magazine for the produce of the mines of Potosi and La Plata ; these are now conveyed thither by the Pilcomayo, and the river La Plata, which is a much shorter, and more secure route, than that of Lima.

The beauty of the situation, the fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, and the riches of the inhabitants of Lima, are not, however, sufficient to compensate for the continual dangers with which they are menaced. In 1747, a dreadful earthquake destroyed three fourths of the city, and entirely demolished the port of Callao. Never was destruction more complete, since of 30,000 inhabitants, only one escaped to relate the disastrous event. This man happened at the time to be in a fort which overlooked the harbour, when he perceived all the inhabitants, at the same moment, rush out of their houses, in the greatest terror and consternation. The sea, as is common on similar occasions, receded to a great distance from the shore, but almost immediately returned like foaming mountains, and engulphed these unfortunate people. The next moment all became calm and tranquil, but the waves which had destroyed the city, drove a small boat into the place where this man had remained, into which he threw himself and by this means attained a place of safety.

QUITO.

The province of Quito is perhaps one of the most singular and interesting countries in the universe. The valley of Quito is situated 1460 toises above the level of the sea, which is higher than the tops of the most elevated mountains of the Pyrenees. A double range of mountains surround this delightful valley ; though under the equator, an eternal spring reigns in this favoured spot ; the trees are perpetually clothed with luxuriant foliage, and loaded with fruits of every species ; it abounds with animals, the wool of which is employed in the manufacture of stuffs, which form its principal article of commerce with Peru. They likewise manufacture in this city cotton cloth equal in fineness to that which they receive from England. The pro-

vince every where abounds with mines of gold, silver, copper, and other metals; there are also several mines of quicksilver, rubies, amethysts, emeralds, rock crystal, and of beautiful marble of different qualities.

This kingdom is intersected in all directions by innumerable rivers, of which the principal flow into that of the Amazon, while others pour their waters into the Pacific Ocean; amongst these we remark the river of *Emeraldas*, the banks of which formerly abounded with emeralds, the precious stone from which its name is derived.

But this fertile and smiling country is not the abode of safety and tranquillity. “Unfortunate people,” says the eloquent Marmontel, when speaking of the inhabitants of Quito, “unfortunate people! whom the fertility of this deceitful land has drawn together; its flowers, its fruits, and its luxuriant harvests, cover an abyss underneath their feet. The fecundity of the soil is produced by the exhalations of a devouring fire; its increasing fertility forebodes its ruin, and it is in the very bosom of abundance that we behold engulfed its thoughtless and happy possessors.”

The earthquake of the 7th February, 1797, has been justly reckoned one of the most destructive that ever occurred on our globe. A particular description of this event, as well as of the volcanoes of Pichincha and Cotopax, will be found in a subsequent page of the Appendix.

The labouring classes of the inhabitants of the city of Quito are industrious, and have attained to considerable perfection in many arts and manufactures, particularly in those of woollen and cotton cloths, which they dye blue, and dispose of in the different villages and cities of Peru. The number of the inhabitants of this city is estimated at 50,000, of which the majority are mestizes, the offspring of native Indians and Spaniards. It is governed by a president, and in it is held the supreme court of justice: it is likewise a bishop's see. The inequalities of the ground on which it stands are so great, as to render the use of carriages inadmissible. The houses are constructed of brick, and seldom exceed two stories in height.

MISCELLANEOUS FACTS.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES OF SOUTH AMERICA.

AMONG the natural curiosities in South America may be mentioned those immense quantities of fossile bones, found in the vicinity of Santa-Fé, at 2,370 toises above the level of the sea; some of which evidently belong to the species of elephant known in Africa while, others appear similar to those discovered near the banks of the Ohio. M. Humboldt speaks of having seen similar bones, which were discovered in the Andes and in Chili; from which fact it may be fairly inferred, that those gigantic animals must have formerly existed from the shores of the Ohio to Patagonia.

From the researches of M. Humboldt it appears, that petrifications are extremely rare in the Andes; even belemnites and ammonites, so common in Europe, are there wholly unknown. Along the shores of Carraccas, this indefatigable naturalist found many shells recently petrified, and resembling those in the neighbouring sea. In the plains of the Oroonoko some trees have also been found petrified, and converted into a hard stony substance.

Father Feuillée, describing in his journal the warm springs of Guancavelica observes, that the inhabitants of this canton set apart those waters which are strongly impregnated with calcareous particles, to cool, when they deposit a sediment, which, being received into vessels prepared for the purpose, soon acquires the hardness of stone; and that it is with this stone their houses are constructed.

But the greatest natural curiosity perhaps in South America, is the skeleton of a quadruped discovered under ground in Paraguay. The form of the head, and the proportions of the body, bear some affinity to those of the sloth, but its length is twelve feet, from which, and other circumstances, it should seem to belong to a gigantic species which is probably now extinct. An accurate description of the *Megatherium* is given by M. Cuvier in the Annals of the Museum of Natural History, from which it appears, that it is only furnished with molares, but is destitute of incisive or canine teeth.

ON THE MOUNTAINS.

NEXT to the extent of the New World, (observes Dr. Robinson) the grandeur of the objects which it presents to view, is most apt to strike the eye of an observer. Nature seems to have carried on her operations upon a larger scale, and with a bolder hand, and to have distinguished the features of this country with a peculiar magnificence.

The mountains of South America, which may be divided into three kinds, are much superior in height to those of the other divisions of the globe.

The great chain of the Andes runs through the whole continent, from north to south; it arises near the Straits of Magellan, and, following the direction of the Pacific Ocean, crosses the kingdoms of Chili and Peru, seldom receding more than 36 miles from the coast. The broadest part of this chain is in the vicinity of Potosi and lake Titicaca; near Quito, under the equator, the continuation of this range rises to a prodigious altitude, forming the highest mountains on the surface of the globe. At Popayan, it terminates and divides into several branches, two of which, in particular, are very remarkable; the one runs to the Isthmus of Darien, the other passes between the Oroonoko and the river Madelaine, and approaching the Caribbean Sea, to the east of the lake Maracaybo, it pursues the direction of the coast, and appears to stretch, under the sea, as far as the island of Trinidad.

Under the second division of mountains in South America, are comprehended those of Brazil, which form rather a cluster than one continued chain. The centre of this cluster appears near Minas-Geracs; from this point there proceeds one chain towards the north, which terminates at Cape Royne; another pursues a southern direction along the coast from Rio Janeiro to Rio St. Pedro; lastly, a third chain, that of Matogropo, extends towards the Compos-Paresis, a large reservoir of water, which, during the rainy season, empties itself into the Amazon and La Plata.

The third division of mountains is composed of those which arise near lake Parima, and form the centre of Guiana. This central point has not hitherto been sufficiently explored; very little also is known of the chain which appears to stretch eastward towards Cape North; but some important information has been furnished us by Don Santos, Don Solano, and M. de Humboldt, respecting the chain which extends towards the Oroonoko. This series, according to them, is extensive, but not very elevated. To the south-west it is lost in an extensive

plain, where the waters of the Oroonoko and those of the Amazon form communications, particularly with a branch of the river Casiquari. This circumstance alone may serve to show, that there does not exist one uninterrupted chain to the Andes, as some might be led to infer from one of the letters of Humboldt on this subject. There can, in fact, only be an abrupt descent from one plain to another; in which way are formed, it should seem, the cataracts of the Oroonoko.

Thus, it is evident, that the three extensive plains, viz. that through which the Oroonoko flows, that which the Amazon crosses, and that which is watered by La Plata, are in contact with each other. Hence it would not be a difficult undertaking to establish a communication, by means of navigable canals, from the mouth of the Oroonoko to Buenos Ayres.

To the general view of the configuration of the American mountains, may be added some details, which we owe to the indefatigable labours of several distinguished travellers, particularly Condamine, Bouguer, and Humboldt.

In the mountainous chain which borders the northern coast of Terra Firma, is situated the lake of Valencia, which particularly attracted the attention of M. Humboldt, by whom we are informed that it exhibits a similar appearance to the celebrated lake of Geneva, with this difference, that it is embellished with all the luxuriance of vegetation peculiar to the torrid zone. The height of this range is estimated at from six hundred to eight hundred toises above the level of the sea. The plains, which extend to its base, are from 100 to 260 toises. But there are detached mountains, which rise to a prodigious height; for example, the altitude of *Sierra Nevada* of Merida is 2,350, and that of the *Silla* of Carraccas 2,316 toises. Their summits are covered with perpetual snows, and from them proceed torrents of hot liquefied substances, sometimes attended with earthquakes. This chain is more precipitous towards the north than to the south; in the *Silla* there is a dreadful precipice, upwards of 1,300 toises in height.

The rocks of this chain are composed of *gneip* and *micaceous schistus*, as in the inferior division of the Andes; these substances are frequently disposed in strata from two to three feet in thickness, and contain large crystals of feldspath; in the micaceous schistus are often contained red garnets, as well as other matters; and in the gneip of the mountain D'Avila, green garnets are not unfrequently found, and sometimes also nodules of granite. Towards the south the chain is partly composed of calcareous mountains, which sometimes rise to a greater height than the primitive mountains. In this range we also meet with rocks of veined serpentine bluish steatites, &c.

The chain of Guiana, or the mountains towards Lake Parima, do not rise to the same elevation as the former. According to the estimate of M. Humboldt, the mountain of Duida, near the Emeralds, is 1323 toises in height. This majestic mountain, from which are constantly ejected flames towards the end of the rainy season, surmounts an extensive plain, covered with palm-trees and ananas. It is wholly composed of gneip, micaceous schistus, slate, and amphibole. Throughout this chain, granite appears predominant. The rocks reputed primitive and secondary, are here arranged in a very singular order. The masses of talc, or shining mica, with which the chain of Parima abounds, have given rise to the fabulous tradition of El Dorado, or a country of gold.

On the road to Los Llanos, leading to the Andes of Peru, lie immense deserts, similar to those of Africa; where, in consequence of the reflection of the heat from the sand, Reaumur's thermometer usually ascends to 33, or sometimes even to 37 deg. in the shade. Throughout an extent of more than 6,000 square miles, scarcely a single inequality on the surface of the ground can be perceived. Being wholly destitute of vegetation, during the dry season this sandy plain exhibits the appearance of a vast ocean, and affords only a shelter to crocodiles and serpents of different kinds. The traveller, in pursuing his way through this dreary region, has no other guide than the course of the stars, and the trunks of a few decayed trees.

It was through these deserts that M. Humboldt and Bonpland pursued their journey to the upper Oroonoko; but on their way to Quito they went by St. Martha, and ascended the magnificent river of Madelaine, passing by the city of Santa Fé of Bogota, which stands 1360 toises above the level of the sea. From this part of the country, which M. Humboldt describes as a perfect desert, they proceeded to Popayan by the way of Buga, and crossing the delightful valley of Cauca, they visited the mines of Platina, in the mountain of Chaca.

This indefatigable naturalist likewise visited the basaltic mountains of Julusinto, and the craters of the volcano of Purace, which, at that time, ejected, with a dreadful noise, volumes of hydro-sulphureous vapours. The temperature of the vallies lying at the foot of this mountain is said to be extremely mild and delightful; the range of Reaumur's thermometer being from 17 to 19 deg. This neighbourhood abounds with beautiful porphyry granites, which are generally found in the form of small columns. In the province of Pasto, which comprehends the environs of Guachical of Tugneres, lies an immense frozen and barren plain, almost surrounded with volcanoes, which conti

usually throw out clouds of smoke so as to darken the surrounding atmosphere. The unfortunate inhabitants of these deserts have no other food than a species of potatoes, termed by them *patates*. In 1800 the total failure of this their only crop reduced them to such a state of wretchedness, as forced them to ascend the mountains, and to devour the trunks of a small tree or shrub, named *achapella*; but as the bears of the Andes feed upon this small tree, the victims of famine were frequently even deprived by these animals of the only resource they had left to prolong their miserable existence. Near the small Indian village of Voisaco, situate 1370 toises above the level of the sea, is found, in great abundance, a red porphyry, with an argillaceous base, inclosing vitreous and corneous feldspath, which possesses all the properties of the serpentine of Montichtel, in Franconia.

M. Humboldt, who visited the city of Quito in 1802, describes the effects produced in its vicinity by the dreadful earthquake which occurred in 1797. "Quito," says this traveller, "is a handsome city, but the atmosphere is always cloudy; the neighbouring mountains are only covered with a scanty verdure, and the cold is very considerable. The tremendous earthquake of February, 1797, which desolated the whole province, and swallowed up from 35 to 40,000 individuals, was also fatal to the inhabitants of this capital. Such was the change produced by it on the temperature of the air, that Reaumur's thermometer, which at present fluctuates from 4 to 10 deg. and rarely ascends to 16 or 17 deg. constantly stood, previous to that catastrophe, at 15 or 16 deg. Since this period, likewise, the province under consideration has been constantly subject to more or less violent shocks; and it is not improbable that all the elevated part of it forms a single volcano. The mountains of Cotopaxi and Pichincha are only small summits, of which the craters form the different funnels, all terminating in the same cavity. The earthquake of 1797 unfortunately affords but too convincing a proof of the justness of this hypothesis, since during that dreadful occurrence, the earth opened in all directions, and ejected sulphur, water, &c. Notwithstanding the recollection of this afflicting event, and the probability of a recurrence of similar dangers, the inhabitants of Quito are said to be gay, lively, and amiable; their city is the abode of luxury and voluptuousness; and in no other place can there be displayed a more decided taste for amusements of every description."

During his stay in Quito, M. Humboldt also visited the crater of Pichincha, which had formerly been examined by Condamine. From the sides of this crater rise three pyramidal rocks, from which the snow has been melted by the heat of the vapours continually issuing from the mouth of the volcanoes. In order

to examine more accurately the bottom of the crater, M. Humboldt assumed a prone posture: and it is impossible, he observes, for imagination to conceive a more dismal and terrifying picture than presented itself to his view. The mouth of the volcano formed a circular opening nearly three miles in circumference, of which the rugged and perpendicular sides were covered with snow towards the top: the interior was of a deep black, and so immense was this gulph, that he could distinguish the summits of several mountains contained within it. Their tops seemed to be two or three hundred toises beneath the point where he stood; hence we may judge at what depth their base must be placed. M. Humboldt is of opinion that the bottom of this crater is on a level with the city of Quito.

M. la Condamine, during his stay in America, ascended the volcanic mountain of Antisana to the height of 2470 toises, which point M. Humboldt was not able to pass; but in the month of June 1802, he succeeded in ascending as high up the Chimborazo as 3031 toises. In both cases such was the rarity of the air that the blood gushed from his nose, mouth, and ears. During his short stay upon the latter mountain he was enveloped in a thick mist, which sometimes dispersed for a moment, so as to display to him the frightful abyss beneath his feet. No animated creature, not even the condor, which in Antisana hovered continually over his head, appeared in this alpine region to diversify the dreary scene. From a trigonometrical measurement, taken by M. Humboldt, at two different times, the height of the *Chimborazo* is 3267 toises. This colossal mountain, like all the other high mountains of the Andes, is not composed of granite, but of porphyry, from the base to the summit; and the porphyry is 1900 toises in thickness. According to Bonguer, the line beyond which lies perpetual snow, is 2440 toises above the level of the sea. Humboldt has not, so far as we know, given any opinion on this point. The volcano of *Cotopaxi*, situated to the south-east of Quito, must be at least 18,600 feet in height. The *Descabesado* is likewise very elevated: but the Andes rest on a very high base, so that estimated separately, they do not equal the Alps in height; but when measured from the level of the sea, their elevation is infinitely greater.

The Andes of Chili appear to be equal in point of altitude to those of Peru: their nature, however, is less known, though from all the information we have been able to collect on this subject, volcanoes seem to be equally numerous in this as in the former chain of mountains.

MINERALS.

All travellers agree respecting the mineralogical riches of South America; many of the provinces of which abound in

extensive mines of native gold. In this country the silver mines are, however, still more numerous and more productive than those of gold, and being more easily wrought, have chiefly engaged the attention of the colonists. But it would be here superfluous to enter into any details respecting a subject so fully and ably treated on in the preceding part of this work.

Mercury, platina, copper, lead, and various other minerals, as will be seen from the account of M. Helms, are likewise common to various parts of South America.

During the reign of the Incas, among other precious stones, emeralds are said to have abounded on the coast of Manta, and in the government of Atacama; and it is affirmed that some valuable mines of this precious stone are still known to the Indians of these parts, but which they conceal, through the dread of being compelled to work them.

The emeralds found at this day in the sepulchres, are fashioned into circular, cylindrical, conical, and other forms, and are perforated with great nicety; but what methods were employed by the natives for this purpose, remain unknown.

TEMPERATURE AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

Climate, it is well known, does not wholly depend on the degree of latitude in which any place is situated, but on various other causes, such as the greater or less elevation of the ground, the nature of the soil, the proximity of seas and rivers, and the scarcity and abundance of forests, &c. Thus it is that we meet with different zones and climates in the chain of the Andes, so that while winter prevails in the vallies, summer reigns in the more elevated regions. Thus also the rainy and the dry season occur at different times, in different places, separated only from each other by a few leagues. In general the countries towards the east of the Andes, are subject to violent rains, while on the contrary those to the west, being sheltered by high mountains, which impede the progress of the clouds, enjoy a dry atmosphere, the serenity of which is never disturbed by violent rains, tempests, nor thunder-storms.

From the relation of different travellers it appears, that in the vicinity of the coast are produced many of the fruits and vegetables peculiar to tropical climates, such as the cabbage palm, the cocoa tree, the cotton tree, the pine-apple, ginger, turmeric, the banana, the sugar-cane, &c.; while in the interior and more temperate regions, and on the borders of the Andes, plants and vegetables of a more hardy nature grow and flourish.

A country, indeed, of such vast extent as South America, lying on each side of the equator, and possessing a variety of

soils as well as climates, must necessarily contain many thousand specimens of plants and vegetables, which are either wholly unknown to us, or with which we are as yet very imperfectly acquainted. Hence the number of new species and genera which M. Humboldt, and his able coadjutor, have recently discovered, will not appear surprising when we consider that they traversed the interior of America, from Carraccas to the frontiers of Brazil, a great portion of which had never before been explored by any botanist.

Besides many other curious plants, they discovered a new genus of the family of palms, to which they have given the name *Cerorylon*, from its singular property of affording wax. This plant is only found on the mountains of Quindiu, situated in 4° 35' N. lat. These mountains, we are informed, consist of granite and micaceous schistus. Tropical plants in general do not vegetate at a greater height than 500 toises above the level of the sea; it is singular, therefore, that the wax-palm is never found below 900, and that it grows in great profusion at 1450 toises, where the mean temperature is from 66 to 68 of Fahr. It sometimes also springs up and thrives in regions 1000 toises higher, and in a temperature 30 deg. below that in which any other of the same tribe or family are to be found.

The wax-palm rises to the prodigious height of 180 feet, and its leaves are twenty feet in length. Another remarkable circumstance in the economy of this tree is, the secreted matter with which its trunk is covered, to the thickness of nearly two inches. This substance, according to the analysis of Vauquelin, consists of two-thirds of rosin, and one of wax. Being extremely inflammable, it is employed by the natives in conjunction with one third of tallow, in the manufacture of candles.

The *cardana altudora* is another large tree, which would appear to be well calculated for ship-building and similar purposes; it is chiefly remarkable for the strong smell of garlic which exhales from the leaves, and even the wood when green. A species of wild coffee, *coffea racemosa*, grows on the woody mountains in the interior; its berries are employed in the same manner as those of the cultivated species. Various kinds of pepper abound in these countries; M. Humboldt enumerates not fewer than twenty-four species, and five or six of capsicum, which are held in great estimation by the natives of Peru.

Tobacco and jidap are also, we are informed, very common, especially the small woods at the foot of the Andes, as well as a variety of beautiful flowers and shrubs indigenous to the country, and many of which, such as *calceolaria*, *salvia longiflora*, &c. &c. embellish the gardens and green-houses in Europe.

The banks of the Orconoko are covered with almost impe-

netrable forests, particularly of the *hevea*, *lecythis*, and the *laurus cinnamoides*.

The forests of Turbaco, near St. Martha, where M. Humboldt passed a few weeks, are ornamented with the *Toluifera*, *Apocynum*, and the *Cavanillesca* of the Peruvian botanists. In ascending the river Madelaine, he observed, among a profusion of other rare and beautiful plants, the *dychotria emetica*, of which the roots are employed as a substitute for ipecacuanha by the inhabitants of Carthagená. M. Bonpland, during an excursion which he made to the forests in the neighbourhood of Jacu, likewise found a profusion of valuable plants, among which may be mentioned a species of the *Jacquinia*, and one of the *Cinchona*. This last, which is accurately described by Bonpland, he ascertained to be the very cinchona delineated by Condamine; it is characterized by the pits or holes at the roots of the large nerves of the leaves. Our limits do not, however, permit us to enumerate more particularly the valuable botanical discoveries made by these indefatigable naturalists, in the course of their travels through South America; suffice it here to observe, that every region which they explored, was found by them to abound with a profusion of new and rare vegetables.

The Editor has been favoured by an eminent Notary Public with a correct Statement of the MONIES OF ACCOUNT made use of in Spanish America.

In all the Spanish dominions of North and South America, accounts are kept in *pesos* of 8 *reales*, subdivided into sixteen parts, and also into 34 *Maravedis de Plata Mexicanos*.

COINS.

OF GOLD. Doubloons of 8 *escudos de oro*, with halves and quarters in the same proportion.

OF SILVER. Dollars, or *pesos-mexicanos*, of 8 *reales*, with halves, quarters, eighths (or *reales*), and sixteenths, in the same proportion.

The value of the above coins depends on the current price of gold and silver. When the gold is at 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per oz. (the Mint price), the new doubloon is worth 3*l.* 6*s.* nearly; and when silver is at 5*s.* 2*d.* per oz. (the Mint price), the dollar is worth 4*s.* 5¾*d.* nearly.

From this proportion the value of the above coins may be calculated at any other price. Thus if gold be sold for 4*l.* per oz., say,

As, 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* : 3*l.* 6*s.* :: 4*l.* : 3*l.* 7*s.* 9½*d.* = the value of the doubloon.

And if silver be at 5*s.* 4*d.* per oz. say,

As, 5*s.* 2*d.* : 4*s.* 4¾*d.* :: 5*s.* 4*d.* : 4*s.* 7½*d.* = the value of the dollar

N. B. *The Weights and Measures of Spanish America are the same as those of Old Spain.

AN
ACCOUNT
OF A
VOYAGE
TO
INDIA, CHINA, &c.
IN
HIS MAJESTY'S SHIP CAROLINE

PERFORMED
IN THE YEARS 1803-4-5,
INTERSPERSED WITH
DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES
AND
CURSORY REMARKS.

BY
AN OFFICER OF THE CAROLINE

"ERRANTI, PASSIMQUE OCULOS PER CUNCTA FERENT." VIRG.

LONDON:

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By J. G. Barnard, 57, Snow Hill.

1806.

PREFACE.

THE following pages having been written entirely for the author's own amusement, and to gratify the curiosity of a few of his friends, without the least idea of their ever coming before the public, he thinks it necessary to apologize for the light manner in which he has passed over many of those subjects that occupy a great part of the narrative in most voyages. Never having been able himself, to derive much entertainment from reading accounts of the monotonous transactions of a ship at sea; such as, "P. M. ditto weather; employed occasionally;" he has, on that account, noticed only a very few of the principal occurrences on that element.

With respect to the shore, he has confined himself to light *descriptive sketches* of the most *picturesque scenes* and *curious objects* which present themselves to the eye of the cursory visitor, without however diving into the *history, politics, or commerce* of the places touched at. These sketches therefore are merely *topographical*, and claim no pretension to *extensive observation*, learned disquisition, or deep investigation.

In such a beaten tract as that to India and China, it may well be supposed, that many of the descriptions and observations have been anticipated by those who have gone before. Nevertheless, as these were copied from *nature*, not from books; and as different people see the same objects through different media, and consequently express themselves in a variety of ways; so these sketches may still afford some entertain-

ment to the general reader; but particularly to those who may visit the places therein described, and have an opportunity of comparing the copies with the originals.

In the language and style, indeed, he fears that many inaccuracies and much roughness will appear. For these, he has no reasonable apology to make, unless it is considered that these pieces were written in a very desultory manner, often on a rude and boisterous element, and continually interrupted by professional duties.

He has therefore to request the reader, when he meets with any thing that offends his ear, to remember that,

“ Far from the Muses’ academic grove,
’Twas his the vast and trackless deep to rove.
Alternate change of climate had he known,
And felt the fierce extremes of either zone :
Where polar skies congeal th’ eternal snow,
Or equinoctial suns for ever glow ;
From regions where Peruvian billows roar,
To the bleak coast of savage Labrador.”

London, May 1, 1806.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES

IN

INDIA, CHINA, &c.

DEPARTURE.

ON the 24th of May, 1803, a king's messenger came on board his Majesty's ship *Caroline*, then lying in Cork harbour, bearing sealed orders, (to be opened in a certain latitude) and the *Declaration of War* with France, &c.

1803.
May.

We immediately got under weigh, and as the winds hung from the S. W. we stood over towards the Bay of Biscay, putting every thing in readiness to give Mounseur a warm reception at the commencement of hostilities, in case we should fall in with him, and entertaining no small sanguine hopes of partaking of Fortune's favours at this propitious crisis.

FRENCH MERCHANT VESSEL.

About 11 o'clock at night, a vessel suddenly hove in sight, and so near us that he hailed us in French, requesting to know our longitude. We desired him to heave to, and we should send a boat on board, but not relishing this answer, he attempted to make off, and obliged us to fire at him.

28.

On the captain's coming aboard he informed us he was from St. Domingo to Bourdeaux, laden with a cargo of colonial produce. We told him he was now so far out in his reckoning, that he must give up all thoughts of prosecuting his intended voyage, for that we were about to send a few British tars on board, who would conduct him safe into port! The sprightly Frenchman, (who though he had no previous intimation of the

1803. *M^{rs}.* war, now clearly saw the state of affairs) after repeating the usual consolatory phrase, "Fortune de guerre," facetiously remarked, that "sure enough he must have been confoundedly out in his reckoning, witness the *Diable* of a LANDEVILL, he had made at last," casting an expressive glance at the implements of war ranged round the decks.

From this time until our arrival at Madena, little occurred worthy of remark. The uncertainty of our destination, and our having only been fitted out for Channel service, obliged us to adopt as strict a system of economy with respect to our water, as was compatible with the health of the ship's company.—To answer this end, they were not confined to any particular allowance, from a conviction that the idea of *limitation* in water particularly, is not only repugnant to a man's mind, but that the reflection even on this circumstance, will excite a kind of thirst and inclination for more than he would otherwise require. At the scuttle-butt, therefore, every one might drink as much as he pleased, but no water was suffered to be taken from thence, except for the express purpose of cooking, or for the use of the sick.

PORTO SANTO.

- June 9. We this day discovered Porto Santo, a small island to the northward of Madeira, and found our chronometers to be very correct: it appears at the distance of five or six leagues, in four or five hummocks of rather whimsical shapes. On approaching nearer, the *Desertas* and *Ilha da Formosa* came in view. During the night we ran in between the *Desertas* and Porto Santo, though it is not very common for ships to do so.

ARRIVAL AT MADIRA.

10. At day-light this morning, found ourselves close in with the north-east point of Madena. As the sun arose, the whole prospect of Funchal, and the surrounding villas, churches, &c. burst upon our view. This bay has a truly romantic and beautiful appearance. The town, the houses of which are all white, and look remarkably well, lies at the bottom of the bay: and the ground forming the extremities of the latter, rises at first with a gradual, and afterwards with a very steep ascent, in the form of an amphitheatre. From the sea up to the steep part, the whole is covered with vineyards, villas, orangeries, churches, and convents, rising in gradation, and forming a most picturesque landscape: while the steep cliffs, crowned with trees of the most luxuriant foliage, and which from their great height, frequently appear above the clouds, majestically crown the whole.

Having, for expedition sake, dispatched our boat ashore,

with a letter, previous to our anchoring, they thought proper to fire at her from the shore, and obliged the officer to put back to the ship.

1803.

June.

After coming to an anchor and saluting the fort, which was returned, the British Consul came on board, in whose barge we went on shore, and proceeded to the Governor's residence to pay our respects to that gentleman.

Here we waited nearly a quarter of an hour in the audience chamber, when at length the doors flew open, and there entered, with a profusion of bows, a splendidly dressed gentleman, to whom we made our obeisance, as well as a company of tars could be expected to do: but what was our surprise, after expending all our *government bows*, when the gentleman informed us, that the Governor would wait on us immediately! We stared at each other in silent confusion, in the midst of which the Governor actually entered, when a most ludicrous interview took place. Our captain could only speak English; the Governor only Portuguese! of course they stood making the most whimsical gesticulations at each other, until the English Consul (who, I believe, kept aloof to enjoy the joke) at length interfered, and enabled them to communicate their ideas to each other, while the *aud-de-camp* and we kept up the conversation as well as we could in French.

LUNCHAL TOWN.

We now separated in order to ramble through the town, which I could soon perceive to be like most other Portuguese cities, handsome enough outside, but disgusting within! The streets were narrow and dirty; the houses high and inconvenient; with the inhabitants corresponding, ragged though tawdry, and dirty though proud.

Englishmen in general, when they get into a Catholic country, immediately visit the convents, monasteries, and churches, not I believe through any particular veneration for religion, but sometimes to satisfy an idle curiosity, or perhaps (which is worse) to have a sneer at their superstition. However that may be, we left very few places of the above description unexplored.

They are extremely glad at the convents, to see an Englishman, and immediately exhibit their artificial flowers, and other curiosities, which he buys at an exorbitant price: for, however the English may be excelled in gallantry by their more polite neighbours, yet, when pecuniary affairs are on the carpet, I'd answer for it they will have the preference even among the fair sex.

1803.

June.

EXCURSION TO THE MOUNTAIN.

After seeing all we could in the town, a party of us set out on an excursion to the *Mountain Church*; but not having the precaution to take a guide with us, we followed a wrong route, and having to cross two deep ravines, it was with the utmost difficulty and danger that we got to the top of the mountain. The view from hence is extensive and picturesque; the town, the roads, Porto-Santo, and Desertas appearing all in distant prospect. We were allowed to go through the church, which, like other Catholic places of worship, is covered with paintings representing passages in scripture. Having got some calabashes of wine, we took leave of this beautiful situation, and the paths that occupy it, returning to town by the proper beaten track, which, however, is a very steep descent.

On our arrival in town, we were invited to dine with the consul, where we met several of the principal merchants, who seemed to relish very much the society of British tars; so much so indeed, that in the evening, when a little elated with the juice of the grape, several of them jumped into the boats and came on board with us, where they sat sacrificing at the shrine of Bacchus, till the ship was some miles at sea. They gave us three cheers, when departing in their boats, which we returned from the quarter deck.

The appearance of Funchal Bay is very singular by night, as well as beautiful by day: the lights rising one over another, up to the Mountain chapel, have a very pleasing effect.

CLIMATE OF MADEIRA

The climate of this island is so clear and salubrious, that there are always a great number of invalids from the northern parts of Europe residing here, especially those who have pulmonary complaints.—It is not, however, exempted from fevers and other continental diseases: for I was told by an English physician, a resident on the island, that during the months of September and October, 1802, it had been visited by the same epidemic catarrhal fever which made such ravages in the months of December, January, and February following, in England and on the continent.

11. We took leave of this beautiful island about eleven o'clock at night, and the next day found ourselves in the north-east trades.

13. We this day discovered Palma, one of the Canary islands, which is so high, that it may be seen nearly 30 leagues off, and in the afternoon we passed close to its western side, with a fine 8-knot breeze.

RUN DOWN THE N. E. TRADES.

1803.

June.

Nothing can be more pleasant, than running *down* the north-east trades, between Madaga and the Canaries, especially at this season, when the skies are so serene and clear, and the temperature of the air so moderate and healthy, that the sick and convalescents are sure to experience a renovation of health on this part of the passage.

SEE THE PEAK OF TENEBEL.

We this day had a sight of the famous Peak of Teneriff, whose lofty summit soars far above the clouds.

13.

Crossed the tropic of Cancer, and about 1 P. M. the sound of some of Triton's shells, announced the approach of Neptune, who seldom fails to board such ships as cross this frontier line of his *central dominions*. At 2 P. M. he hailed us, and immediately came on board, attended by Amphitrite and a train of marine deities.

14.

SHAVING ON THE LINE.

On this occasion, upwards of two-thirds of the officers and ship's company were introduced to his highness, when those who had not had the honour of seeing him before, most merrily drank his health in a bumper of his native element, going through the remainder of the ceremonies, such as ablution, shaving, &c. &c. with the greatest good humour, to the infinite distraction and amusement of the spectators, concluding the day with the utmost hilarity, from the contributions of the officers, novices, &c. As "crossing the line" is a ceremony not very well known, I shall here give a sketch of that humorous process.

A particular and careful list of all those ~~who~~ cannot give a satisfactory account of their having crossed the line, is made out, they are then confined in the tween decks, and brought up one by one into the waist, where the apparatus and performers are ready to receive them. The dresses of Neptune and his suite, on this occasion, are truly grotesque: long hair wet swabs bespattered with flom, combs and then flowing locks, while their faces are daubed with red ochre, and other colours, that make them appear like deities of a still lower region than the sea.

A large tub of salt water is now placed under one of the gangways, with a stick crosswise, which may easily be made to slip into the water. On this the man to be shaved, is placed, and the barber, who has previously mixed up a pot full of turpentine, dirty grease from the galley, and some other ingredients that shall be nameless, begins to ask him some question or other, which he no sooner opens his mouth to answer, than he has the

brush thrust in, and in fact finds himself instantly lathered from ear to ear with this odious composition! A piece of iron hoop, notched with a file, and as rough as a saw, now serves the place of a razor; with which being shaved, or rather scraped, the signal is given, the seat gives way, and down he tumbles into the tub of water! when perhaps 30 or 40 buckets are kept baling on him from the booms, boats, gang-ways, &c. &c; this struggle continuing sometimes five or six minutes, before he gets clear from the watery ordeal!

As the sun was now near the tropic of Cancer, he was of course almost vertical at noon; and though to us it appeared tolerably warm, yet it was not near so hot as we afterwards felt it, when at a great distance from the meridian sun.

MAKE THE CAPE DE VERD ISLANDS.

16. We this morning saw the land, which proved to be the island of St. Nicholas, one of the Cape Verds: we were of course considerably out in our reckoning; and as the winds then were, we thought it best to push through a narrow passage between St. Nicholas and St. Lucia, which we effected by 4 P. M. The weather here, as is generally the case in the vicinity of islands within the tropics, was very hazy, with drizzling rain, and sometimes heavy showers.

At midnight passed the island of Brava, which we could scarcely discern, owing to the darkness of the night.

20. In proportion as we receded from the sun, the weather appeared to get hotter, the thermometer generally ranging from 76 to 83 in the shade, which we considered as a very great degree of heat (having passed a very severe winter in England,) it was, however, trifling to what we were destined to feel afterwards.

23. At 4 A. M. this morning, (it being a perfect calm,) it began to lighten, with loud peals of thunder; after which, the rain fell in such torrents, that in an instant almost every part of the ship was completely drenched. By spreading awnings, we turned this to very good advantage, the sailors by those means obtaining plenty of fresh water to wash their clothes: which, by the bye, was no unwelcome present from the clouds at that time, both to the officers and men; for the suddenness of our departure from Europe, prevented us having any thing like a sufficient stock for an East India voyage. Here we lost the north-east trade, though in 8° 30' north latitude, we could only account for this failure by the sun being so far north.

COUPS DE SOLEIL, &c.

Between the 23d and 30th of June, we had nothing but

calms, light airs, and hot sultry weather, during which time several of the people got sick, with bilious complaints, and what are called "Coups de Soleil," or strokes of the sun, from being exposed to the rays of that luminary, especially when asleep, one of the top men, therefore, who fell asleep in the middle of the day, when aloft, was taken extremely ill with the affection of the brain, which rendered him for a short time delirious, but by bleeding, and other evacuations, he recovered, as did all the others.

1803.
June,

It would, however, be advisable, I think, for people removing from a cold to a hot climate, to take certain opening medicines, which might be a great means of preventing many of those little illnesses that occur so frequently on this occasion.

We now begin to get the tail of the S. E. trades, though 5 or 6 degrees to the northward of the line this, however, is not uncommon at this season of the year, when the sun is on the tropic of Cancer.

CROSS THE EQUATOR.

Crossed the equator, with due respects to Neptune, who now took his final leave of us, the equinoctial fringing all other lines on the globe. July 6,

BEAUTY OF THE MORNINGS AND EVENINGS IN THESE LATITUDES.

Between the parallels of 10° N and 5° S. the evenings and mornings at this period were singularly beautiful in the afternoon, particularly as the sun approached the western horizon, the assemblage of fantastic clouds, tinged by the setting rays, that hovered round him as he dipt his orb in the ocean, brought to mind some of those beautiful descriptions of Thomson, in which he has painted the setting sun so minutely.

— — — — — "His downward orb,
"Shed nothing now but animating warmth,
"And vital haste, that thrills in every
"Light up the clouds that borrow robes of heaven,
"Incessant roll'd into new shapes,
"The dream of waking glory."

— — — — — "The shutting clouds,
"Assembl'd gay, with various tum,
"In all the pomp attend his setting throne."

In running down the S. E. trades, the climate was so temperate, and the air so salubrious, that we had scarcely a sick man in the ship.

1803.

WHALES.—ALBICORE.—ALBATROSSES.

July. Sharks, albicore, and turtle, were now frequently caught, and proved very great treats to the ship's company.

22. We this day, for the first time on our voyage, saw several immense large whales, blowing and tumbling round us. The albatross, too, began to make his appearance; this is a very singular bird, the wings of which have several joints, and extend sometimes twelve feet from tip to tip. We caught them with a hook and bait, which were allowed to trail at some distance astern, and at which they snapped in a very ravenous manner.

Lat. 30. 2. S

Long. 6. 4. W.

26. A young man happening to fall over board this day, while the ship had great way through the water, he went down before the boat could reach him: all the time, however, that he kept above water, we could plainly perceive the albatrosses darting down upon him, and we had little doubt but that they injured him considerably; as he was one of the best swimmers in the ship, and could have buoyed himself up a much longer time, had it not been for these voracious birds. This was the only life lost on the voyage.

From this time till we made the Cape, we had nothing but gales of wind from the southward, with a tremendous rolling sea in the same direction; which caused the ship to labour so much, that we were constantly drenched with water in every part; forming a great contrast with the velvet sailing in the N. E. and S. E. trades.

MAKE THE CAPE.

Aug. 2. By our reckoning we now judged ourselves to be in the vicinity of the Cape; and about mid-day we observed a vessel standing to the southward, which we chased, and captured, being a Dutch man of war brig, proceeding to Batavia, with intelligence of the war.

About 11 o'clock the same night, while regaling Mynheer with some grog and pipes, we were agreeably surprized by another Dutchman, who almost fell on board of us: he proved, however, rather better than the first, being laden with a good cargo from Batavia to Amsterdam. We dispatched both vessels to St. Helena, and proceeded on our voyage without delay.

We had a view this day of that celebrated promontory, the Cape of Good Hope; and though it is seldom passed without gales of wind, we nevertheless were two days in sight of it, and almost becalmed the whole time. Even this distant prospect of a hostile shore was cheering to our eyes, after our long route through the Atlantic and Southern ocean.

To ensure strong breezes after leaving the Cape, we steered to the southward as far as 38° S. latitude, in which parallel we ran down most of our longitude. This was by far the most unpleasant part of our voyage, the weather was dreary and cold, with almost constant gales of wind from the N. W. and a prodigious sea right aft, which caused the ship to roll her gangways in the water almost every time. 1803. August.

None but those who have experienced it, can form a just idea of the unpleasantness of running a fortnight or three weeks before the wind with a heavy sea; the continual agitation preventing one from receiving any thing like good rest or sleep during that period!

Our daily progression during this part of the passage, was from 250 to 266 miles a day, steering due east.

MAKE THE ISLAND OF CEYLON.

Having got into the 70th parallel of east longitude, we shaped our course to the northward, and left this stormy latitude of the Pacific ocean. We soon got into the S. E. trades, and had no more disagreeable weather, a fine breeze wafting us along two hundred miles a day, and on the night of the 4th of September we saw the fires on the mountains of Ceylon, after a very good passage of one hundred and four days; without the least preparation for a long voyage, yet without losing a man by sickness, during this long run of upwards of thirteen thousand miles. Sept. 4.

There did not appear a single symptom of scurvy during this voyage; which may be accounted for, by the discipline and cleanliness of the ship's company. For as to antiscorbutics, there were only two or three cases of lime juice on board the ship; and they could not be of much consequence among 244 men.

Much too, I think, depends on keeping the men's minds employed during long voyages, in little amusements and recreations, which are not at all incompatible with good discipline: every fine afternoon therefore, the dance commenced under the half deck or gangways, which was kept up till eight o'clock, diffusing a general exhilaration of spirits through the whole of the crew.

We this morning saw the land, which proved to be the Friar's Hood, a mountain so called, from the resemblance which the peak of it bears to a hood: and indeed it seems to hang over on one side in a very curious manner. 5.

During this forenoon we kept steering along shore, about two miles and a half distant from it, not a little delighted with the prospect, and fine flavour from the woods. 6.

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APPEARANCE OF CEYLON FROM THE SEA.

The coast along this part of Ceylon (especially close to the shore,) very much resembles the English between Yarmouth and Ipswich; except that here and there along this beach appear groves of the cocoa-nut tree, interspersed with Indian huts, or as they are called bungulows. Behind this, the scenery is truly romantic; the hills and mountains rising in the wildest order, and most fantastic shapes imaginable: abrupt precipices, pleasant vallies, thick groves, towering cliffs, and lofty mountains, all intermingled in "regular confusion," and clothed in nature's most verdant livery! affording a delightful prospect and relief to the eye, fatigued with the dull monotony of a long sea voyage. From the singular appearance of some of those hills, mariners have been induced to confer on them as whimsical titles; such as the Friar's Hood, Dromedary's Back, and other various appellations, from their similitude to animals, &c. &c.

TRINCOMALLEE HARBOUR.

At day-light this morning, found ourselves close in with Trincomallee harbour; but as the land breeze was blowing fresh off shore, it was mid-day before we got to an anchor in Back bay.

The appearance of this place is very pleasant from the sea; the harbour is one of the most capacious in the world; the surrounding country covered with trees of the most luxuriant foliage; and Flag-staff point, a promontory that projects into the sea, and ends in a perpendicular precipice, forms a fine contrast with the smooth expanse of ocean below.

Close to this rock we anchored for a few hours, in order to give intelligence of the war to the ships; and then made sail for Madras.

While passing this day in sight of the Danish settlement of Tranquebar, we captured a French ship in ballast, bound to Cochin on the Malabar coast. She had not had any intelligence of the war, though Admiral Lamoignon, it seemed, had been apprized of that event, as he had made his escape from Pondicherry roads some time before our arrival.

THE SEVEN PAGODAS.

The only thing that attracted our attention on this coast, was an assemblage of ruins, called the Seven Pagodas, which are situated on a little hill of stone, that rises abruptly on the sea-shore from the surrounding plain: nothing, however, like seven Pagodas can be distinguished, when viewed with a good glass; one or two only appear, apparently rising from the vestiges of other buildings, the whole having indeed an antique and venerable cast.

At night, the lightning was frequent, and exceedingly vivid over the land: this is generally the case in the S. W. monsoon.

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ANCHOR IN MADRAS ROADS.

This morning came to an anchor in Madras roads.

The first object that strikes the European on his arrival here, is an extensive, beautiful, and very strong fort, built on the sea-side, and containing handsome squares, streets, churches, barracks, and other public buildings. To the right of the fort, and at a little distance from the beach, there is a partial view of what is called the Black-town, which takes its name not from the line of the houses, but of the inhabitants, most of whom are people of colour.

The town itself has a very good appearance, the houses being built with porticoes, and flat roofs, while the chunam gives them that marble look, which adds so much to their beauty; from among these, the Hindoo temples, and spires of the Armenian and Portuguese churches, are seen in many places, shooting up to a considerable height, and have a very good effect.

GOVERNMENT HOUSE.—GARDEN HOUSES.—NABOB'S PALACE.

To the right of Black-town, and close to the beach, nearly a mile to the northward of the fort, there is a chain of buildings, which, from their magnificent appearance, might well be taken for some royal residence: yet these are nothing more than the custom-house, and the offices of some of the English merchants!

Carrying the eye to the left, or southward of the fort, the government house presents itself, near the beach, and about a quarter of a mile from the saluting battery. It is composed of two separate buildings, each of which is beautiful in itself; but the oblique situation in which they appear to stand, with respect to each other, and the fort, is, in my opinion, a considerable drawback from the effect of their perspective view from the roads.

A little way to the southward of the government house, stands the nabob of Arcot's palace, so embedded in a grove of trees, that very little of it can be seen from the sea. From hence, for five or six miles in every direction, the country is studded with gentlemen's seats, called "Garden Houses," which from their marble-like porticoes, and colonnades, might at first be taken for so many Grecian temples.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MASSULAH BOATS AT MADRAS.

As ship's boats never attempt to land at this place, there are a number of the country, or as they are called, Massulah boats.

kept by the India government to attend on such ships as are lying in the roads; for the men of war there are generally two, to cross the surf to the ship's boats, which lie at a grapnel outside.

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The Massulah boats are of very rude construction; flat-bottomed, high, and the planks sewed together by a fibrous substance, that gives the timbers great play while crossing the surf.

They are rowed by eight or ten men, who sit upon narrow *thwarts*, that cross from gunwale to gunwale; and use instead of common oars, long pieces of bamboo, to the extremities of which are tied small oval pieces of boards: with one of these oars lashed to the stern, the boat is steered, the man standing upon a little platform or quarter-deck raised abaft; before and below which, is the seat for the passengers. The luggage, &c. stows on a parcel of brush-wood that lies in the bottom of the boat; which is generally so leaky, that a boy is kept constantly baling out the water. The men are perfectly naked, except a small piece of rag tied round their loins.

Thus equipped, they pull towards the shore, with a song, whose harshness to the European ear no words can describe!

CROSSING THE SURF.

As the surf at this settlement is perhaps the greatest in the world, there scarcely passes a monsoon without the loss of several lives: the settlers are therefore very averse to crossing it.

In common weather, there are only two or three distinct surfs, the outermost of which is the largest, and most dangerous; but in bad weather, and especially at the breaking up of the monsoons, the surf sometimes has been known to break as far out as where the ships lie at anchor.

It is very interesting to see these Massulah boats, with the men lying on their oars, on the very verge of the surf, waiting, and carefully watching, till a very large one has broke close to them, when they immediately pull in, with all their might, and with a united concert of vocal music, that might well rival the war-hoop of the American savages.

By these means, they generally contrive to pass the place where outer surf breaks in the interval between two surfs; when the danger is over.

This, however, was not the case the first time we went ashore; for the Massulah men pushing in too soon, a tremendous swell took us forward with amazing rapidity, and the instant it broke beneath us, the boat *broached to*, and we were immediately overwhelmed in the surf! When its rage a little subsided, we found the boat nearly full of water, but still on her bottom; two or three of the men, who had been thrown from their seats overboard, instantly regained them, and fortunately got the boat's

head round, before the next surf overtook us, which otherwise would certainly have upset us.

It has been a question, in which the greater danger consists the going on shore, or coming off? I am inclined to think the former is most dangerous, though boats are frequently lost in both operations.

In going towards the shore, these accidents generally happen by the *broaching to* of the boat; and in going off, by a large surf curling in over the bows of the boat, and swamping or *staving* her.

At these periods, there are generally catamarans attending the Massulah boats, which are frequently instrumental in saving the lives of Europeans, for which they get medals, that they are not a little proud of. This vessel (if it deserves that name) is composed merely of three pieces of wood, 10 or 12 feet in length, and lashed together with pieces of rope; the middle piece is the largest, and somewhat lower in the water than the other two. On this therefore, the catamaran-men (generally two) sit actually on their heels, for their knee-joints are so flexible, that they can bring every part of the back of the leg into contact with the under side of the thigh; so that their hip-bones rest on their heels.

DESCRIPTION OF THE CATAMARANS.

Their paddles are pieces of slit bamboo, three or four feet in length, and thus equipt they dash in through the surf, which sometimes upsets the catamaran, end over end; but they soon mount it again, having strings fastened to the timbers, and rolled round their wrists, so that they never can be thrown off to any great distance.

It is highly entertaining to see these fellows manœuvring their little vessel through the surf; as soon as a large one comes near them, they start upon their legs, and leaning forward, plunge right through it: they are not always, however, able to effect this; for sometimes it is so powerful, that it upsets catamaran and all.

It is as amusing to the spectator, as it is embarrassing to the stranger, to behold the crowds of dubashes, cooleys, servants, &c. &c. that surround the latter, the instant he sets his foot on shore, pestering him with their certificates, and soliciting permission to attend upon *massa*. If he gets clear off the beach in a quarter of an hour, he may think himself very lucky: and as he has generally occasion to repair to the Bazaars, in quest of linen, light clothes, &c. &c. his palankeen is attended by a score of fellows; who, at each shop, cheat, wrangle, and at length fight about the profits!

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Every arrival from Europe is a fresh harvest for blacky, which he takes good care to gather in; and every one, as soon as he touches terra firma, is a griffin, and consequently fair game.

The scenes of contention, for employment, among those fellows, are sometimes highly ludicrous. The mixture of fury and fear, depicted in their countenances and gestures; their menacing attitudes; and above all, the torrents of unintelligible jargon with which they bespatter each other, would excite the risibility of a stoic!

THE DUBASHES.—THEIR IMPOSITIONS.

It is, however, indispensibly necessary to have a dubash, who transacts all business in the Bazaars, &c. and who takes special care that no person but himself shall cheat you: which to be sure, is only a negative kind of advantage, yet “of two evils, it is better to choose the least.”

ENVIRONS OF MADRAS.

We were able to make but a few short excursions round the environs of the town for this time; but were very much pleased with the appearances of the garden-houses on the mount road. Above all, with the gay assemblage of our fair country-women; who every evening sport their elegant figures, and brilliant equipages, while taking the air on this public promenade.

We went through curiosity, to the nabob's palace, but were denied admittance; there being an order by the governor in council, that no European shall attempt to pass into the said palace, on pain of being sent to Europe. This punishment (if it may be called one) we were told was actually *inflicted* on a gentleman who had the rashness to disobey the order: when some wag wrote in large characters, on the palace gate—“*The Way to Europe.*”

NABOB OF ARCOT.

It seems the present nabob has not much trouble in governing his dominions; the East India company, out of *pure good nature*, having taken the *guidance* entirely on themselves: and to shew their liberality and generosity still farther, have allowed him a very comfortable salary, to live on in his own castle, where he has even *guards* to attend upon him!

Though his power is thus circumscribed, he is still paid exterior marks of respect; such as hoisting the red flag, and saluting him at the port, when he comes to pay any formal visit.

Many stories are told of the ridiculous pride of some of the former nabobs; such as causing a herald to proclaim, every day

after dinner, that his highness had dined; and that all other princes, potentates, &c. in the world, might now go and dine as soon as they pleased!

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GREAT HEAT AT MADRAS.

In most parts of India, but at Madras particularly, you never can stir out, unless in a palankeen, or bandy: it being mostly a red sandy ground about this place; the reflection of the sun is dreadful, and coups de soleil are very frequently got, by walking up from the beach to the Black-town.

The palankeen is a very pleasant conveyance; and with eight bearers, which are generally sufficient, will cost about 2½ rupees, or 6s. 6d. per day.

PROCEED TO BENGAL.

We this morning weighed anchor, in order to proceed to Bengal, with a small convoy of Indiamen; and experienced a very tedious passage along the Coromandel coast, as it was now near the breaking up of the S. W. monsoon; consequently we had frequent squalls, with thunder, lightning, and rain.

10.

THE MONSOONS.

I need scarcely say, that in India the winds are periodical; blowing six from one quarter, then shifting, and blowing the other six months in an opposite direction.

From the time the sun crosses the equator, on his way to Cancer, in March, until he returns back to it in September, the S. W. monsoon prevails; and from September till March again, the N. E. monsoon prevails.

It is not to be supposed, however, that it blows exactly from the S. W. and N. E. during these periods; there are very great modifications in this particular. For instance, in the course of the S. W. monsoon, the wind blows from all the points between south and west: and vice versa in the north-east monsoon.

Now it is at the change, or breaking up of these periodical winds, that heavy gales, and even hurricanes, happen in the Indian seas; when the two monsoons seem to be conflicting with each other. After they are fairly set in, however, the breeze is steady, the seas smooth, and the skies serene, with very few exceptions.

ARRIVE IN THE RIVER GANGES.

21.

We this day got into muddy water, and struck soundings on the Sand Heads, long dangerous shoals lying off the mouths of the Ganges, formed by the sand carried down with the rapid stream of that great river.

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PILOT SERVICE.

On account of the intricacy of the navigation here, there is what is called the "pilot service," in which young men serve a regular limited time; and then rise in rotation up to branch pilots; when they get the command of a schooner, in which they realize, in a few years, a very comfortable independence.

RIVER HOOGLY.—THE RAPIDITY OF THE TIDES IN THIS RIVER.

24.

Anchored abreast of Kedgerree, a small village on the western bank of the Hoogly.

The river Ganges, like the Nile, long before it approaches the sea, separates into two great branches, which are afterwards subdivided, and enclose a large delta, or triangular space, called the Sunderbunds.

The western branch then takes the name of the Hoogly, on whose banks is seated Calcutta, the capital of Bengal, and residence of the governor-general; distant from the sea, about 90 or 100 miles.

Men of war generally lie at Kedgerree, or Diamond harbour; at this latter place, which is some 40 or 50 miles below Calcutta, the regular Indiamen always moor, refit, and take in, or discharge their cargoes.

Ships, however, of any size, may lie close to the walls of Calcutta, nay, go perhaps an hundred miles above it: but they are first obliged to lighten, in order to pass a bar that lies a little above Diamond harbour.

The tides in this river, particularly at full and change, are rapid beyond belief, forming what are called "Boars," or "Bores," when the stream seems as if tumbling down a steep descent, doing great mischief among the boats, by upsetting and running them over each other! Ships themselves are frequently dragged from their anchors, and dashed furiously against each other, at these periods.

They attempt to account for these torrents, by saying, they depend on the other small rivers that open into the main one, by bars; which at a certain time of the tide, allow the waters to rush out, all at once, into the grand stream, and thereby so much increase its velocity.

KEDGEREE.

At Kedgerree only one European resides, who has the care of the post-office, and who supplies ships with vegetables, water, and other necessaries. At this place, therefore, we had an ample allowance of all kinds of refreshments for the sick, such

as fruits, roots, &c. at the expence of government; 6d. per man per diem being allowed for the number represented by the surgeon, as in need of such vegetables, and that to continue for a fortnight or longer, according to circumstances.

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We here got pine-apples, plantains, bananas, yams, oranges, cocoa-nuts, limes, shaddocks or pommiloes, guavas, &c. &c. &c. all extremely cheap; three or four pine apples, for instance, cost only an ana, or 2d. English; and the others proportional. Fowls and ducks two rupees, or 5s. per dozen, geese three rupees, or 7s. 6d. and all other species of stock equally reasonable.

The village is small, but the land around it level, and producing great quantities of rice; the fields being all laid under water at certain seasons of the year, by the overflowing of the Ganges: hence ships lying here, or in any part of the river indeed, between Calcutta and Saugur, experience great sickness, in the months of July, August, and September, when the great periodical rains take place, and the heats are excessive.

SMALL CRAFT ON THE RIVER.

There is a wonderful variety of small craft constantly passing and repassing on this river; from the elegant budgerow that can accommodate the whole family of an European gentleman, down to the little boat, that serves to land a single person on the banks.

They generally rise high abaft, where they have a shed constructed of bamboos, and matted over; here the boatmen eat and sleep: forward they run out into a sharp prow, which glances up from the water very gradually, and of course they are very low at this part. A platform of loose boards serves for a deck, on which the rowers sit on their backsides, with one leg extended along the deck, and the other bent, with the knee up to the breast.

It is astonishing what a length of time these fellows will row without being fatigued; I have known them pull a boat from Saugur to Calcutta, a distance of nearly one hundred miles, with only a few hours intermission, and yet seemingly exerting themselves to the utmost every stroke!

While passing Saugur island, the fatal spot was pointed out to us where Mr. Munro was carried off by the tiger.—A bench is formed round the tree where he was sitting at the time this formidable animal sprang upon him, and a small white flag used to be suspended from one of its branches.

ALLIGATORS INFEST THE RIVER.

This river is very much infested with alligators, especially on the Kedgerree side, where a month seldom passes without some

1803. of the natives being devoured by these dreadful creatures. A
 Sept. creek about a mile to the northward of the village, has been the
 haunt of one for many years, and who has long rendered himself
 formidable to the neighbourhood, by his depredations and enormous
 size, being, it is said, 28 or 30 feet in length!

Two of us having landed late in the evening at Kedgeree, found it very difficult to prevail on two of the villagers to accompany us across this creek, to Mr. Jackson's, the English resident, who lives about two miles from thence: on our way along the banks of the river, we at one time, near this creek, heard a rustling among the jungle, at which our guides seemed so affrighted, that they were on the point of taking to their heels, and leaving us to find our way as we could. We did not know the cause of this panic until we got to Mr. Jackson's, when we were informed that only two nights before this, a man had been destroyed by an alligator at the very spot where we heard the rustling noise.

SINGULARITY IN THE MOTIONS OF THE ALLIGATOR'S JAWS.

Some little time after this, I purchased a young one, about four feet in length, from a fisherman who had caught it in his net. Its figure exceedingly resembles the guana; and it likewise bears a considerable similitude to the lizard. it could run but slowly along the decks, with its lower jaw close to them; on presenting a stick, it would snap at, and lay hold of it very readily: the extent to which it would open its mouth on these occasions, could not possibly be effected by the falling of the lower jaw alone, which, as I said before, it kept nearly in contact with the decks:—the two jaws therefore, in this operation, seemed to recede from each other, like the blades of a pair of scissors when opening.

As I conceived that this appearance might possibly give rise to the old opinion, that the upper jaw of the crocodile was movable, I examined particularly the head of this one after death. In the first place, there was no joint or motion between the upper jaw and the head, as the Jesuits at Siam, who dissected this animal, have justly remarked; but they have not (if I recollect right) taken notice, of any peculiarity, in the lower jaw's articulation with the bones of the head; which is different from that of any other animal with which I am acquainted.

Here, instead of the head of the under jaw-bone being received into a cavity in the bones of the skull, (as I believe is generally the case) it is, on the contrary, a hollowed out, to receive an articulating process from the skull; as if the former was meant to be the fixed point, and the latter the movable.

The fact is, that in this animal, when opening his mouth to

any great extent, while the lower jaw falls, the strong muscles on the back of the neck, draw backwards the head, and raise the upper jaw at the same time; this in all probability, first suggesting the idea of the mobility of the crocodile's upper jaw.

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Here, as usual, nature has artfully adapted the structure to the peculiar functions of the animal. The alligator, whose legs are very short, and whose jaws are uncommonly long, (perhaps one-fourth of his whole length) would not, when on shore, be able to open his mouth to one half its natural extent, if the motion depended on the under jaw alone: for owing to the lowness of the animal's body and head, this jaw, would come in contact with the ground before the mouth was sufficiently extended, and therefore nature has given it the power of raising the upper jaw occasionally, with great ease.

CAN TURN QUICK LIKE OTHER ANIMALS.—HIS RAVAGES ON THE BANKS OF THE GANGES.

It is an erroneous opinion that this animal's back-bone is not sufficiently flexible to allow of his turning short when in pursuit of his prey; and that therefore a man by taking a winding course, when pursued, might easily elude him. I would not advise any one to trust to this manœuvre; though I believe the alligator seldom attempts to seize any creature otherwise than by surprise: for this purpose he frequently lies among the mud on the shores of this river, or in the creeks that open into it, and when any animal is passing near him, he is almost sure of securing him, on account of the great length of his destructive jaws. He frequently too throws himself across the boats that hawl up into these creeks, and tears the poor defenceless fisherman to pieces in an instant, or dives to the bottom of the river with him, where he devours him at his leisure!

Dogs, especially of the *Punia* kind, and jackalls that come down to the edge of the river to drink, very often fall a sacrifice to the insidious alligator, who will lie close to the banks; and at those times very much resembles the trunk of a tree, or pieces of floating wreck. It is said, that when in pursuit, (which however is seldom the case) he generally endeavours to get abreast of the object, and then by making a sweep, with his extensive jaws, he seldom fails to secure his victim.

The teeth of this animal are terrible to behold! long, sharp, and inter-locking with each other, evincing his being solely carnivorous; besides this, there are two in the front of the lower jaw, longer than the rest, and which pierce through the upper jaw, coming out at two apertures near the nostrils so that having once laid hold of his prey, there is little chance of its

being able to extricate itself afterwards from such engines of
 1803. destruction.
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THE SUNDERBUNDS AND SAUCUR PARTICULARLY INFESTED WITH TIGERS.

The banks of the river opposite to Kedgeriee are inhabited by animals equally as insidious, and still more ferocious than the alligators. There are perhaps few places in the world of equal space with the Sunderbunds, that are so thickly tenanted by wild beasts: man having seldom intruded on their haunts, but left the undisturbed empire of the place to themselves.

It is somewhat singular, that though the fierce tiger claims here the sovereign sway, and seems even to defy the human race itself, yet the peaceful timorous deer abounds in great plenty, under the very jaws, as it were, of this merciless tyrant of the woods, whose fangs it is astonishing he can possibly escape!

Ships' boats are sometimes sent ashore here, (Saugur) with parties of people to cut wood; and unless they are very vigilant they will lose some of the men by the tigers. An instance of this kind occurred while we lay at Kedgeriee. A Portuguese having been seized and killed by one of those animals, who was in the act of dragging him into the jungle, when some of the party shot the tiger, and both corpses were brought back in the boat!—They are so fierce on Saugur island, that they will sometimes swim off to the native boats that are at anchor near the shore in the night, and make dreadful havoc among the men who are then asleep.

SHARKS IN THE GANGES.

The stream itself is much infested with sharks, which are mostly of the ground kind; and as soon as any garbage is thrown overboard, they will instantly rise and seize it, affording an easy method of taking them by the hook: but sailors seldom give themselves the trouble of declaring war against this their common enemy, unless at sea, where a hearty meal is always made of the captive's body.



INFATUATION OF THE HINDOOS.

It is well known, that to this river, whose stream and banks are the resort of such destructive creatures, many Hindoos were in the habit of annually coming down, at certain seasons, in order to devote themselves to the fury of the alligator, tiger, and shark! thinking themselves happy, and even their friends favoured by Heaven, if they were permitted to expire on the banks or in the waters of their beloved Ganges!

It is not a long time since guards were obliged to be posted at Saugur island, in order to prevent these dreadful infatuations.

REFLECTIONS ON FOOD IN THE EAST INDIES.

As the Hindoos eat little or no animal food, rice becomes the principal article of their subsistence; and there is no doubt but that the prohibition of the former, now a religious institute, was founded in true policy; a vegetable food being much better adapted to the human constitution in tropical climates, than an animal one.

Although it is out of the question, that an European, on his arrival in India, should turn Hindoo, and live upon rice; yet I believe if he was to relax a little in his passion for beef-steaks of a morning, a sumptuous dinner at seven in the evening, with a bottle of wine to help in loading the stomach going to bed, and to conform a little to the rules of the Pythagorean school, he would perhaps not only avoid a few of those fashionable Oriental diseases, such as the liver complaint, bilious fever, &c. but enjoy the invaluable blessing of good health!

“ Prompted by instinct's never-erring power
 “ Each creature knows its proper aliment;
 “ But man, th' inhabitant of ev'ry clime,
 “ With all the commoners of Nature feeds!
 “ Directed, bounded, by this power within,
 “ Then cravings are well aim'd: voluptuous man
 “ Is by superior faculties misled,
 “ Misled from pleasure ev'n in quest of joy.—
 “ Sated with Nature's bounties, what thousands seek,
 “ With dishes tortur'd from their native taste,
 “ And mad variety, to spur beyond
 “ Its woe will the jaded appetite!”

ARMSTRONG.

Several of these casts, particularly those devoted to arms and navigation, the Seapoys and Lascars, together with the Parias or outcasts, indulge in small quantities of animal food; but fish seems to be their greatest favourite, with which they make exceeding good curries; and these, when eaten with large proportions of boiled rice, form perhaps the most wholesome aliments that a man in health can use in the East Indies.

INDIANS AT THEIR MEALS.

The European is generally much disgusted at first with the Asiatic manner of eating: as the Indians use nothing but their fingers, which perhaps half a dozen of them will be thrusting at the same time, into the same dish of curry and rice, which they will roll up in balls, and sling into their mouths with great dex-

1803. ~~Sept.~~ terity, and which they seem to swallow in rather a voracious manner, the whole circle thus squatted round their homely meal, exhibiting a very grotesque and novel sight to the stranger. On these occasions they make use of the *right* hand only; the *left* being employed in a ceremony of a very different nature:—this circumstance, and the great attention which they pay to ablutions, sufficiently counterbalance the otherwise apparent indelicacy in their mode of eating.

SAIL FOR RANGOON.

Oct. 10. Sailed in company with the Walker brig for Rangoon, on the coast of Pegu. This was a very disagreeable trip, on account of the excessive heat and sultriness of the weather:—all along the coast of Ava and Anacan we had nothing but light airs—calms—then sudden squalls, with lightning and rain.—Most of us, for the first time, were now annoyed with that pest of hot climates, the prickly heat, the sensations arising from which are indubitably tormenting: for it is next to an impossibility to avoid rubbing or scratching the part where it first is felt, and this action settling the body in a glow, the merciless prickling heat attacks every part of it, goading one almost to madness with its infernal stings. Nor is there any cure for this singular affection of the skin but patience, and keeping oneself as quiet and unruffled as possible, cold-bathing indeed gives a temporary relief, but this interval is generally succeeded by a more violent attack than before: it is said that han-powder dusted over the skin, gives the most ease.

We came to an anchor off the mouth of Rangoon river, and dispatched into the harbour the Waller, to bring off the English resident, who was threatened by the rajah.

The rivers that open on the eastern coast of the bay of Bengal, bring down such quantities of mud and slime, that the sea appears turbid to a great distance from the shore, and is rather alarming the first time one gets into it, the more so, as the tides and currents in these parts run with great velocity; and where counter-currents meet these, a rippling is formed, extending sometimes for miles in a right line, attended with a noise exactly resembling that of breakers, which, in the night-time particularly, would excite considerable apprehension among people unaccustomed to the coast.

DIAMOND AND CHIDUBA.

20. On our return to Bengal, as the north-east monsoon was beginning to set in, we kept along the Anacan shore, passing close to Diamond and Chiduba islands, the former of which, where we afterwards anchored, we found to abound in turtle of

the largest size, and excellent quality; ships might here turn in one night forty or fifty, but the shore being studded with sharp rocks, except in one or two particular places, it requires considerable caution in landing with boats.

Behind these islands the coast appears agreeably diversified with hill and dale; the former covered with lofty woods, comprehending great variety of trees, among which the Teak bears a conspicuous figure. Some clumps of rocks and little isles, that lie at a small distance from the shore, called the *Buffaloes*, from some resemblance which they are supposed to bear to those animals, have a very curious and whimsical appearance, their shapes perpetually changing, as we slowly sailed past them one fine evening, afforded many of us a good deal of amusement, in comparing them to animals, castles, villages, cottages, forts, &c. &c. which the different points of view, and the effects of light and shade, caused them to resemble.

EXCURSION TO CALCUTTA.

This day we came to an anchor in Kedgee roads, and a party of us embarked in the pilot schooner for Calcutta, a place we were all very anxious to see. As the north-east monsoon, however, had now completely set in, and of course blew right down the river, we were obliged to tide it all the way. which indeed gave us the better opportunities of observing the beautiful scenery that decorates each side of this river, especially after it separates from the *Old Ganges* near Fulta. Nov. 16

SICKNESS AT CULPÉE, AND DIAMOND HARBOUR.

While waiting for the tide at Culpée, and Diamond harbour, both situated on the eastern bank of the Hooghly, we visited several of the Indiamen lying there, where a great mortality prevailed among the European seamen. This is the case almost every year, especially in the months of July and August, at and after the great periodical rains, that fall in Bengal about this time; when many a hardy tar, after weathering various toils and dangers, is here cut off in a few days, nay, hours, by a violent fever which is endemic at these periods!

The rivers swelled by this annual deluge, sweep down great quantities of dead animal and vegetable substances, which, at the fall of the tide, lie on then low muddy banks, exposed to the meridian sun, whose beams draw up then putrid exhalations towards the middle of the day; and these are wafted on board the ships by the light land breeze, producing, in conjunction with the intense heat of the climate, the most dangerous fevers.

They generally begin with delirium, high fever, great thirst, heat, and anxiety, with often a bilious vomiting which is a very

troublesome and dangerous symptom. This fever frequently kills in the course of the third day, unless the patient's mouth can be affected by mercury before that time. This wonderful medicine is considered here, as the sheet anchor in this and many other diseases: and therefore they throw it into the system as fast as possible, after the disorder appears, both internally and by frictions, until a ptyalism comes on, when they pronounce them out of danger.

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Numbers, however, both officers and men, were daily falling a sacrifice to this baleful and unhealthy spot! It is found that the farther down the river, the less sickness prevails, and that consequently Saugur road is the healthiest anchorage in the Hoogly.

Here it is that the good effect of temperance will become eminently conspicuous!

—————“ Beyond the sense
 “ O light reflection, at the genial bowl
 “ Indulge no often, nor protract the feast
 “ To dull satiety ———
 ————“ I or know, what'er
 “ Beyond its natural fervour hurries on
 “ The unmeasured, whether the pregnant bowl,
 “ High seas n'd furs, or excites to toil
 “ Protracted, spurs to its last scene—tu'd life!”

ARMSTRONG.

I well know how frequently youngsters are led astray, by the insidious tales related by veterans of the bottle, who represent to them that the surest method of escaping sickness in unhealthy situations, is, (to use one of their own expressions) by carrying on the war! But, alas! how many of them find when it is too late, that they have only been waging war against their own constitutions, and in fact placing a destructive weapon in the hands of their enemy, the climate, which will sooner or later cut their own thread of existence!

ROUP NA RAN, OR OLD GANGES.

A few miles above Diamond harbour, the Hoogly and Old Ganges unite their streams; and at the confluence of these two rivers, there is a very dangerous shoal, called the “James and Mary,” on which vessels are frequently lost: the stream running strong on the flood into the Old Ganges, (called also the Roup na Ran) ships, especially in light winds, are carried often upon this shoal, in attempting to turn up into the Hoogly, when they are generally upset in an instant, and rolled over and over, in a manner frightful to behold!

As we passed this place in the pilot schooner, we witnessed a scene that nearly proved tragical.

A large Arab ship, in turning into the Hoogly, struck on this shoal, and in a moment the rapidity of the tide laid her on her beam ends, with every stitch of sail set: the water, however, rising very suddenly, she swung round with her head to the stream, and by righting quickly was thus miraculously preserved. The Arabs on these occasions frequently impute the accident to the pilot, and were once or twice on the point of heaving pilots overboard!

The scenery is not very interesting until one gets above Fulta, when chateaus, as well as cottages, begin to peep out from the umbrageous foliage that skirts the banks of the river.

SCENERY ON THE RIVER AS YOU APPROACH CALCUTTA.

It is at Garden Reach, however, that the most striking and beautiful prospect presents itself to the view; the banks of the river (which is here about twice the breadth of the Thames at London), are covered with a verdant carpet to the water's edge, and decorated with numerous elegant villas, or rather palaces, each surrounded with groves and lawns, forming a succession of very interesting objects to the stranger, while silently gliding past them.

The river itself, too, claims no small share of his attention: from ships of a thousand tons, fraught with commerce, down to the slender snipe-boat, that seems to fly along the surface of the water, the eye wanders with a mixture of pleasure and surprise, over the various intermediate links: the elegant budgerows and pleasure boats, conveying whole families of Europeans to and from their country seats, contrasting finely with the rude and curiously constructed vessels of the natives: forming altogether a scene the most picturesque and engaging that can be imagined! and in the contemplation of which, the stranger is generally so much absorbed, that he does not perceive the lapse of time, until he is unexpectedly roused by the sight of

FORT WILLIAM,

and a little farther on the city of Calcutta itself.

The fort is situated on the eastern bank, about a quarter of a mile from the town, and makes a very good appearance from the river; it is an extensive and strong fortress, laid out in squares and regular buildings, interspersed with groves of trees, that afford a comfortable shelter from the noontide heat, and exhibiting inside, a great likeness to a pleasant wing of a city.

Between this and the town, a level space intervenes, called the Esplanade, which is crowded evenings and mornings with all ranks and descriptions of people, who resort there for air, exercise, or conversation.

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The government-house, and Charinga road, (a line of detached buildings, that bound the esplanade on one side,) cut a very interesting figure from this part of the river.

CALCUTTA, &c. &c.

The European part of the town lies next the fort, and the houses are here much more elegant than at Madras, (the garden-houses excepted.) The reason of this is very evident: at fort St. George they are only used as offices, or warchouses, the gentlemen invariably retiring to their garden-houses in the evening: whereas, at Calcutta, most of the merchants have their offices attached to their dwelling-houses, and of course both are kept in good order: for though the chunam, when kept clean and entire, rivals the Parian marble itself, yet when it gets tarnished, or is suffered to drop off here and there, and thus discovers the bricks underneath, nothing can have a more mottly or beggarly appearance: and this is very frequently the case at Madras, both in the Fort, and Black-town, where the houses often put one in mind of so many Portuguese, with flaming swords and cocked hats, over shabby coats, and dirty linen: complete emblems of pride and poverty united!

The great body of the native or Black-town, stretches farther up along the river side, and is of considerable extent; abreast of this, the groves of masts that present themselves, bearing the flags of various nations, but chiefly the English, give one some idea of the commerce that must be carried on in this metropolis of India.

19. We landed at Banksall on a very beautiful evening, and while passing through the streets in our palanqueens, were not a little amused with the novelty of the surrounding objects.

The elegance of the houses, the noise and bustle of palanqueens, and their bearers, the variety of splendid equipages, dashing out to the esplanade, and the concourse of natives of every description passing to and fro, all conspired with the serenity of the evening, to form a highly interesting scene on our first arrival.

Though the town itself is the residence of a great number of European gentlemen, yet the surrounding country for some miles, is chequered (as at Madras,) with handsome seats, which, from the fertility of soil, are encompassed with gardens and groves, far exceeding those of Madras in verdure and foliage.

It appears, however, that at Bengal, they cannot give the chunam that high degree of polish, that is observable on the Coromandel coast: this may be owing to some difference in the shells, of whose calices this curious paste is made.

The governor's palace, or government-house, as it is called, very soon attracts the stranger's notice, and we had an opportunity a few days after our arrival, of visiting it.

It is situated on the western side of the esplanade, and is a most august and beautiful fabric, from whatever point it is viewed. Over the four colossal arches or gates that lead to it, there are placed sphinxes, and various figures and emblems, that have a very good effect. The king's and company's arms, are emblazoned over the western and eastern gates.

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With respect to the interior part of the building, I am not architect enough to give its description; nor do I think indeed, that any adequate idea of it can be conveyed by words; the eye, not the ear, must be the medium of communication.

The marble hall, in particular, brought to my mind many of the glowing descriptions in the Arabian Tales, of enchanted castles, &c. and indeed I could scarcely persuade myself, that I was not treading on magic ground, all the time I was wandering through it!

The esplanade, of course, next engaged our attention; here, from day-break till the sun has got to some height above the horizon, the greater part of the European inhabitants, and many of the natives, may be seen enjoying the cool air of the morning, and taking active or passive exercise, on horseback, in chariots, palankeens, and other vehicles; and indeed at this cool season, even pedestrian exercises may be used with safety.

In the evenings, however, when the ladies as well as the gentlemen take an airing before dinner, the grand display of beauty, equipage, and pomp among the Europeans, and the variety of complexion, dress, and manners, among the different casts of natives, form a scene so chequered and novel to a person just arrived from England, that he must be of a very phlegmatic disposition indeed, not to be highly entertained with it.

The bazars in the Black-town afforded us an amusing lounge every day; where we often thought we had made good bargains, but were invariably over-reached by blacky. They would actually out-wit the Jews themselves: for they have great address and penetration; and instantly see whether or not one is a judge of the value of their wares, making their prices accordingly, and indeed they will frequently ask double, treble, or quadruple, what they will ultimately take for any article!

We visited that fatal spot in the old fort, called the Black Hole; where in 1756, the inhuman soubah of Bengal confined Mr. Howell, and 145 others, from eight o'clock in the evening, till six in the morning, during which time 123 fell victims to the cruelty of this merciless tyrant!

The place being no more than 18 feet square, those unfortunate persons were suffocated; and a monument is erected over against the spot where this horrid scene was acted, to commemorate the event.

There is a very singular bird that frequents the streets and environs of Calcutta, where it is almost domesticated, called, from the length of its legs, and slow solemn walk, *the Adjutant**.

As it devours the garbage, and all putrid animal substances in the streets, it is on that account held sacred, and no one is allowed to shoot any of these birds: they perch on the battlements, and highest projecting parts of the houses, where they stand as motionless as statues, with their heads pensively resting on their pouches, or sometimes turned to one side: in these positions, strangers generally take them for inanimate beings, so perfectly divested do they seem of life and motion.

As Calcutta lies close to the tropic of Cancer, when the sun is in Capricorn, or 56 degrees removed from them, the inhabitants experience a kind of little winter, or considerable diminution of the intense heat of the summer; which is still farther effected by the north-east monsoon, that blows with a refreshing coolness at this season. During the months of December and January particularly, it is not uncommon to sleep with a blanket over one; whereas, at other times of the year, the suffocating heat (in conjunction with swarms of mosquitoes,) renders the night an object of dread, rather than a comfortable refreshment after the heats of the day.

This little diversity of season (were the climate otherwise healthy,) would render Bengal far preferable to the more southern parts of India, where very little change is felt, except for a short space, at the shifting of the monsoons on the coast of Coromandel: the flatness of the country, however, and its being every where intersected, and a great part annually overflowed by the Ganges, will for ever be the cause of sickness, as well as fertility!

* "The Adjutant, Argall, or gigantic Crane, grows to the height of five feet when erect; the bill is of great strength and vast length, compressed, and sharp pointed; the circumference of the base of one measured by Mr. Ives, was sixteen inches; the extent of wings fourteen feet ten inches; the length from tip of the bill to that of the claws, seven feet six inches. It is a bird of filthy aspect; the craw appears red and naked, passing over the shoulders, and returns in front, and becomes pendulous, and is covered with long hair below the breast.

"It is a most useful bird, clears the country of snakes, noxious reptiles, and insects. In Bengal it finishes the work begun by the jackal and the vulture. They clear the carcasses of animals from the flesh—it removes the nuisances of the houses by swallowing them entire.

"They are perfectly familiar in Bengal, and undaunted at the sight of mankind. The Indians believe them to be invulnerable, and that they are animated with the souls of the Brahmins. Mr. Ives missed his shot at several, which the standers-by observed with great satisfaction, telling him he might shoot to eternity and never succeed."

The Europeans in Calcutta, dine at so late an hour as seven o'clock; but they take a slight repast at one, which consists in general of light curries, or the like, with two or three glasses of wine: they therefore seldom have a good appetite at dinner, but sit down languid and inert, with more inclination to drink than eat.

Now, though no people can be more temperate in both these respects, yet the unseasonableness of the hour at which they dine, cannot fail to be prejudicial to their health, in such a hot climate as this, where independent of a loaded stomach, it is at all times difficult to procure any thing like good rest at night. Those therefore, who would prefer sound health to fashionable hours, should tiff, (as they term it,) a little later, and make it serve for dinner.

They say indeed, (with much justice,) that seven o'clock is the most comfortable time of the day to dine, that then all business is over, the air cooler, and the insects, (a great pest during the day,) all dispersed. This is very true, but slight inconveniences should be made subservient to a real good.

With respect to the hospitality of the Calcutta gentry, and the English settlements in general; from what I could observe during a space of more than two years, it is my opinion, (whatever a few Smel fungi may say to the contrary,) that in no quarter of the globe, is the term so seldom used, and the practice so universally adopted. I have often indeed admired the *liberality of sentiment* in these grumblers, who measure the hospitality of a whole people, by the degree of attention that happens to be paid to themselves! who would confidently pronounce the inhabitants of Calcutta, or Madras, a set of inhospitable hypocrites, if they did not happen to receive all that civility, which they consider as *due* to their *self-importance*! Yet such there are, who draw general conclusions from obscure and local circumstances, instead of observation.

The houses in India, are remarkably well adapted to the climate, or rather to counteract the effects of a hot one; by having large and lofty apartments, with spacious verandahs, in which they sit and dine frequently in the hot season: in their rooms they have curious machines, called punka's, or large fans, which are kept constantly waving over head while at dinner, and produce a most agreeable effect. Very little furniture is kept in rooms in India, any thing that obstructs the air being a great inconvenience: I scarcely recollect having seen a ceiling in Calcutta, they say it would harbour dirt, and consequently heat, besides becoming a rendezvous for different kinds of vermin.

The coolness of their wine, and water, is in this climate a very great luxury; the process is entirely a chemical one, viz. the

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Dec. communicating to wine, &c. the cold produced by the solution of a solid, in a fluid body; every family, therefore, keeps a hob-daar, for the purpose of cooling their water and wine. This fellow takes a small tub, and throwing in two or three pounds of salt-petre, pours a quantity of water on it, and then keeps stirring the mixture, with his bottles of wine, or water, which he holds by the neck until they are sufficiently cool, when he proceeds with other bottles, and so on, till the mixture ceases to give out any more cold, and obliges him to throw in more salt-petre. About seven-tenths of this salt is recovered, by evaporating the water in boiling, and suffering the crystals to shoot in the cold.

We had opportunities of seeing elephants and tigers at this place, of the largest size; indeed we every day found fresh objects to engage our attention, and contribute to our entertainment, it was, therefore, with the utmost reluctance we bade adieu to this hospitable and elegant settlement, in order to return on board the ship, which was now preparing for sea.

THE GANGES.

Being accommodated with a budgerow, and provisions, as the winds were very faint, and sometimes contrary we proceeded slowly down the river on the ebb tides, bringing up during the floods, at the villages on the banks, and making excursions from thence into the country, to see the manufactures, manners, and customs of these harmless people, thus prolonging this little voyage of pleasure, to the length of three or four days.

We visited the Botanical Garden, which is delightfully situated on the western bank of the river, a few miles from Calcutta, its appearance from the water too, while passing it, is very picturesque.

"Here waving groves a chequer'd scene display,
"And put admiring part exclude the day,
"There interspers'd in lawns and opening glades,
"Thin trees arise, that shun each other's shade."

The natives were exceedingly civil to us wherever we went, shewing us every thing, and supplying us with all kinds of fruits, for a mere trifle.

At a neck of land called Melancholy Point, where there are the ruins of an old fort; we learned from an European whom we met here the following little history, which he said gave name to the place.

A young gentleman of the army, having married a lady in England, was ordered a short time afterwards to proceed to India with his regiment; the lady's relations, or the gentleman's own

circumstances, would not at the time, permit her accompanying him; they were therefore forced to separate, and he proceeded to Bengal, from whence a correspondence was carried on for some years, when he at length persuaded her to undertake a voyage to India, which she accordingly did, and arrived safe at Sanguur roads. He was at this time stationed in the fort, (whose ruins I have mentioned,) and on the very day of her arrival in the river, was seized with the fever of the country, which terminated his existence, before his wife and a fine child, (the pledge of their mutual affection,) could reach the place where he lay!

On her coming into the fort, and beholding her husband's corpse, she fell into a state of insensibility, which was succeeded by that of melancholy, and in six weeks she followed her husband to the grave!

During the period of her decline, she used to go out every day, and sit some hours on this point, weeping over her child! hence it has acquired the name of "*Melancholy Point.*"

During our stay in the Ganges, and on our cruise to Rangoon, we experienced considerable sickness on board the ship, especially in the month of October, when there were often so many as fifty or sixty in the sick list at a time; these were principally dysenteries, intermitting, and remitting fevers. Still (though fresh from Europe,) we did not lose men in proportion to the Indians; the difference of situation, and the circumstance of the hard labour which they have on board the latter description of ships, can only account for this. We here witnessed the astonishing effects of that wonderful mineral, Mercury, which is a cure for almost every disease in this climate: no sooner does it begin to salivate, than there is a remission of all the symptoms in dysenteries, fevers, &c. which many of us experienced with no small degree of satisfaction, very few of us having escaped without an attack from one or other of these complaints.

KEDGEREE HEALTHIER THAN DIAMOND HARBOUR.

It appears that Kedgerree is a healthier situation than Diamond harbour, and therefore men of war should always bring up at this place, having no particular business with one part of the river more than another: H. M. ships *Howe* and *Medusa*, by lying at Diamond Harbour afterwards, suffered more than eight times the loss which we sustained at Kedgerree.

This may be owing to the proximity of the anchorage at Diamond harbour, to the low swampy shores about this place; where a great many rivulets open into the stream of the Hoogly, and bring down from the country quantities of putrid substances, that lie along the banks at low water, emitting the most offensive vapours.

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I was informed that the ships which lay directly abreast of any of those creeks, were always more sickly than the others: this is a hint worth attending to, when bringing the ship to her moorings.*

Nothing can be more disgusting to the eye of a European, than the number of floating corpses that are daily seen passing and re-passing with the tides on this river! especially between Fulta and Calcutta, where they are not so much devoured by sharks and alligators. The speckled hue which they exhibit, renders them still more odious to view; for by the time they have arrived at that state of putrefaction, which causes them to float; a great part of the scarf skin and the mucous net, (or colouring substance of Indians) have peeled off, and exposed the true skin beneath, which being as white as a European's, gives them a very motly and loathsome appearance.

Having dropt down to Saugur roads, in order to collect the homeward bound Indiamen; we here spent our Christmas with the utmost festivity.

This is a jubilee which British tars never fail to commemorate, whatever part of the globe they may happen to be in at the time.

If the ship happens to be in harbour on this day, and no particular vigilance requisite, there is generally a considerable latitude given to the ship's company, by most captains, in respect to getting merry over the social can of grog. In well regulated ships, the men very seldom abuse this indulgence, and indeed such a little annual libation to the memory of their friends and relatives, may well be allowed to a class of people, who are to be for years cut off from the sight of all they hold dear.

PASSAGE FROM BENGAL TO PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

28.

Sailed from Saugur with the convoy, which we accompanied till abreast of the Andaman islands; when we hauled off to the eastward, and left them to pursue their voyage.

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We fell in with a privateer the same night, close to the little Andaman, that had been lurking here for the purpose of attacking the convoy; he used every exertion in getting from under our guns, which on account of the darkness of the night could have little effect; at day-break, however, we were along side of

* The water with which ships of war, &c. are supplied at Bengal, is generally taken up from the Ganges, somewhat above Calcutta, and is consequently full of slime and other feculence, that frequently occasion fluxes and bowel complaints among the people, unless it is suffered to stand for some time, and then the clear part gently pumped off from the turbid into fresh casks: this will not only render it a pleasant beverage, but obviate a great deal of sickness and discontent among the ship's company.

him, and he in a very wanton manner poured a broadside into us while hauling down his colours.

We passed between the Andaman and Carnicobar islands, close to the northern extremity of the latter, with several other islands in sight, all having a dreary and inhospitable appearance: the winds nearly due east, with fine weather, but (as in the vicinity of most islands) squally at intervals. The next day ran close past Tolonga, which is of considerable height, but in other respects similar to the rest of the Nicobars.

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COAST OF SUMATRA.

We this day had a view of Pulo-Rondo, Pulo-Way, and the high land of Sumatra, about Acheen head: we now experienced little else than a succession of violent squalls of wind, with deluges of rain; in the night thunder and lightning in an awful degree.

10.

The effects of the latter are very dreadful all through the straits of Malacca, Banca and Sunda, ships being frequently struck, and sometimes blown up by lightning, as was the case with the *Resistance*, 44, when only three or four of the whole crew survived that dreadful event!

During this day we kept beating to windward, under the high land of Sumatra, between Acheen head and Diamond point. The weather was dark and gloomy, with vivid flashes of lightning at intervals; while the loud claps of thunder reverberating among those stupendous mountains, that seemed congregated up to the clouds; gave the surrounding scenery a kind of awful and solemn cast.

As the wind continued to blow obstinately from the eastward, we were obliged to beat all along the coast of Sumatra to Diamond point, making a very small daily progress, on account of the currents, which were likewise against us. In fine weather we kept close to the shore, and were often gratified with the most romantic prospects, especially on the coast of Pedir, where there are many beautiful and fertile spots, that seem from the sea to be well cultivated.

PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

It was not till the 21st of January, that we could reach Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales's island, situated at the entrance of the straits of Malacca, and two or three miles distant from the Malay coast: the topographical sketch of this beautiful and interesting little settlement, I shall defer till a future period, with the exception of that of a very beautiful little waterfall, about 6 miles from the town, which a party of us went to see, the day after our arrival at the island; and which is very well worth visiting by any person who touches here.

21.

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THE WATERFALL.

We started from the town at day-break, and rode a few miles through pepper plantations, groves of the cocoa-nut, betel, &c. highly delighted with the fragrance of the air, which at this time of the day is strongly impregnated with the grateful odours that rise along with the exhaling dews, from the trees, shrubs, and flowers. At the foot of the mountain, however, we were obliged to dismount, and proceed on foot up a winding path, that led through a forest of trees, of the most gigantic size, and which, by meeting over head almost excluded the day; involving us in a kind of pleasing gloom, the effect of which was heightened by the distant noise of the waterfall.

——“ I hear the din
 “ Of waters thundering o’er the run’d chã
 “ What solemn twilight, what stupendous shades,
 “ Enwrap these infant floods!—Through ev’ry nerve
 “ A sacred horror thrills.—A pleasing fear,
 “ Glides o’er my frame.—The forest deepens round;
 “ And more gigantic still, th’ impending trees
 “ Stretch their extravagant arms athwart the gloom.”

ARMS-TRONG.

The latter part of our journey was steep, rugged, and narrow, and so overshadowed with the thick woods, that we could see nothing of the fall, until we came to the basin into which the water tumbles; all at once then this little fairy-glen opened to our view, and displayed a slender and beautiful cascade of water, clear as crystal, and issuing as it were from the middle of a little tuft of trees, about two hundred feet above our heads. The stream is twice intercepted in its descent, by thin ledges of rock that run across the fall, and by splitting it into thinner sheets of water, add greatly to the beauty of the cascade. It at length precipitates into a basin of solid rock, from one side of which it glides off into a steep and rugged channel, that forms a series of other little cascades all the way down to the foot of the mountain.

The basin is bounded on each side by craggy precipices, whose brows are over-hung with lofty pines, some of which have occasionally given way, and their trunks are seen lying in various directions at the bottom, being split and torn by the fall: the harsh notes of birds screaming among the woods, the noise of the waters foaming over the rocky fragments, and a transient thunder storm that happened to pass over our heads at the time, brought to my mind the following lines, which, had they been written on purpose, could scarcely have given a better sketch of the place where we now sate.

" On each side of the dell a rude precipice frown'd,
 " Whose banks were with deep tang'd thickets embrown'd;
 " O'er the dale a chill berton the pine branches shed,
 " While the loud peals of thunder oft roll'd over heard;
 " Oft was heard from its airy, the hawk's piercing scream,
 " While o'er the rock's fragments loud dash'd the wild stream."

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Jan.

After enjoying our little cold collation in this romantic spot, and bathing in its cool and refreshing waters, we reluctantly took our departure, and retraced our steps back to the town, admiring the beautiful natural scenery of this island, a sketch of which I shall have a better opportunity of giving hereafter.

SAIL FOR BENGAL.

We this morning weighed and made sail once more for Bengal: as the north-east monsoon was now in its height, we were obliged to keep along the Malay coast, which is high and much diversified in its outline features, from the great variety of forms which the mountains assume. The next day (25th) passed Pulo Bnton, (26th) Pulo Sayer, and on the 29th descried the east Andaman.

24.

BARREN ISLAND.

On the same evening we got sight of Barren, or volcano island, which, at this time was burning very fiercely, the eruptions taking place every eight or ten minutes, with a hollow rumbling noise.

30.

This is a small circular island lying almost in sight of the east Andaman, between that and the Malay coast; it appears to be a perfect cinder, or at least covered in every part with lava, without the smallest vestige of vegetation: it is of considerable height, and the volcanic opening or crater in the centre of the island. We passed within little more than a mile of it, and as the winds were trifling, we observed the eruptions for three days and nights successively.

MINERVA SHOAL.

While standing in one day to the Andaman shore, the man at the mast head perceived a white coral rock close a-head of the ship: we instantly tacked, and while in stays conjectured we just touched it: this was the Minerva shoal, which lies in lat. 12. 10. N. at no great distance from the shore, and on which the Minerva frigate was once nearly lost. These coral reefs are very dangerous, for they grow fast and branch out like trees, which will punch a hole through a ship's bottom very readily.

1804.

INHABITANTS OF THE ANDAMANS.

Jan.

31.

The inhabitants of these islands (Andamans) are a most wretched race of mortals; they go entirely naked, live principally upon fish, and 'tis said are cannibals when they can procure human flesh!

They have no form nor idea of government, religion, or social order; indeed they are scarce a degree removed from the level of the brute creation! having no houses nor other habitations than caverns or the hollows of trees, &c. When a settlement was formed on the great Andaman, called fort Cornwallis, the natives could not be prevailed upon to have any regular intercourse with the Europeans, and we were therefore obliged to relinquish the situation, bringing off three or four of the natives, one of whom is now on board a man of war in this country: and though he has been many years from his native isle, which he left young, yet he has learned very few words indeed, and his ideas seem to be as confined as his words!

A RUSE DE GUERRE.

Feb. 4.

We this day while steering between the Narcondam and Cocos isles, in sight of the latter; perceived at 10 o'clock in the forenoon, a large ship on our lee quarter, evidently in chase of us; as it would have excited too much alarm to bear up immediately after her, a *Ruse de Guerre* was tried, which completely succeeded to our wishes. Most of the small sails were taken in, the top-sails reefed, and the ship kept luffing up occasionally in the wind so as to impede her motion, taking care at the same time not to alter the course, nor to appear as taking the least notice of the strange sail. By this decoy she had so far gained upon us at sun-set, that we could clearly see her hull off the deck, she all the while working up with a strong press of sail. During the night we kept under very little canvas, frequently heaving her up in the wind, so as to make scarce any progress through the water.

Before the day dawned, men who were noted for good sight were stationed at all the mast heads, with orders to keep a most vigilant look out, the moment the day broke. The good effects of this caution were soon evident, for we saw her at least ten minutes before she saw us, during which interval we were enabled to wear, and stand directly towards her, without her observing this manœuvre, and consequently she took us for quite another vessel, than the one she had been chasing the preceding day; this mistake she could not correct (owing to our being *end on*) until she was completely under our cannon, and fell an easy prey to us, without firing a single gun! She was a large frigate

built privateer, of thirty guns and two hundred and twenty men, a ship that would very probably have done much mischief to the trade of the country. It was amusing enough, on this occasion, to behold the countenances of the French officers who were on board since the capture of the other privateer, when they saw this ship (their consort) running as it were into our jaws; sometimes cursing the temerity of their countrymen, and at other times bewailing their infatuation! Having taken the prisoners on board, we made sail, and without any further interruption arrived at Kedgeree on the fifteenth of February.

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Feb.

15.

Here we remained till the eighth of March, during which time the weather was almost as cool as one would desire; the N. E. monsoon coming down clear and refreshing from the country, and no sickness on board.

PROCEED TO MADRAS.

We now took leave of the Ganges for the last time, and proceeded with a homeward bound convoy as far as the Andamans, when we hauled up for Madras: the winds, however, at this season were so baffling, that it was the twelfth of April before we reached the port: thus, a passage that with a fair wind we might have made in five days, took us thirty-five to perform, so very precarious are voyages in India.

Mar. 8.

April
12.

MASULIPATAM.

Towards the beginning of May, the *land winds* were setting in on the coast of Coromandel: and at Madras, therefore, we began to feel their disagreeable effects. Having run down to Masulipatam, however, with treasure, we here had a tolerable good specimen of them on the night of the twentieth of May. About midnight they blew strong from the shore, rolling clouds of dust before them, when the thermometer suddenly rose from ninety-two to ninety-nine, and soon after to one hundred and five! The air was now so suffocating that we were lying about the decks actually gasping for breath; the breeze seemed as if coming out of a furnace, parched our skins, and produced very disagreeable sensations. The next morning there was a great number of bats found on board, and a variety of birds that had taken refuge with us during the night, having been forced from the shore by the scorching land wind.

May.

17.

20.

21.

We made no farther stay at this place after such a reception, but weighed and made sail for Madras, where we arrived in forty-eight hours. But here, alas! our unwelcome guest continued to visit us for the next two months with the most cruel punctuality!

25.



1804.

May

&

June.

HOT LAND WINDS AT MADRAS.

During the greater part of May, June, and July, there are no regular sea and land breezes at this part; the S. W. monsoon then blowing with such force, that the causes which produce those *alternate breezes* are not sufficient to influence its general course: and hence we have the hot land wind blowing all the twenty-four hours; but generally stronger at that period when the breeze is accustomed to blow from the shore. The long tracts of flat, sandy country, on many parts of the coast, (Madras and Masulipatan for instance) being heated by the fierceness of the sun's rays at this season, communicate of course this heat to the breeze passing over them, producing these hot *land winds*, which will continue to blow till the strength of the monsoon is so far exhausted, that the natural causes of sea and land breezes will again be able to operate and interrupt them.

These winds often blow with considerable violence at Madras; generally between eleven and one o'clock in the day, when they raise such clouds of dust, that the houses of the town and fort are completely obscured, and so high is it carried into the air, that the decks of the ships in the roads are frequently covered with sand, rendering this the most disagreeable roadstead in the world at this period.

The natives suffer very much during the hot wind; as it is very common to see the palankeen boys drop in the streets, struck dead by its baleful effects! I have seen the sand and dust blown about here with such violence, that the bearers were obliged to let me down, and get under the lee of the palankeen to prevent their being suffocated!

These winds are apt to occasion contractions in the limbs, that are very difficult to get clear of; but otherwise this is a healthy season, for not a particle of moisture is now afloat in the atmosphere.

The Europeans have a very ingenious, and indeed philosophical method of guarding against these *winds*. It is this: along the western fronts of their houses they have thin straw mats (called *tatrys*) placed, so as to cover the doors, windows, or other apertures; servants being stationed to keep these constantly wet with fresh water, the *hot wind*, in passing through, produces such an evaporation, that a great degree of cold or abstraction of heat takes place, and thus renders the air inside the mat quite cool. The family, therefore, sitting behind these mats enjoy a delightful cool breeze, which at a few yards distance, is like the fiery breath coming out of an oven! but completely metamorphosed by

this simple and beautiful chymical process. On the same principle of producing cold by evaporation, gentlemen on board ships, when they want a bottle of wine cooled quickly, put a couple of glasses of arrack, or any other spirit into a plate, and setting the bottle in the middle of it, keep bathing the sides of it with the spirit, by means of a spoon, when in a few minutes the wine will become quite cold; the process is accelerated if it is performed in a current of air, under the wind-sail for instance.

During this season, the thermometer in the shade at Madras, ranges from 81 to 95: the following is copied from the Madras Gazette.

State of the Thermometer at the Male Asylum.					
1804.	7 A. M.	Noon.	3 P. M.	8 P. M.	
July 11	81	85	89	85	N. B. The Thermometer from which these observations are made, is placed in a room moderately exposed to the weather, and facing the north-west.
12	81	88	90	86	
13	81	91	92	86	
14	82	90	93	84	
15	83	91	94	88	
16	87	92	95	91	
17	87	91	96	91	

FATAL ACCIDENT OFF SADRAS HILLS.

The surf at Madras generally rises high during the land winds, from the opposition it meets with in rolling towards the shore: sometimes, however, it is so smooth of a morning here, that one would think the smallest boats might land in great safety. At this period too, squalls and pulls sometimes come off the land, (accompanied by thunder) with such violence and rapidity, that there is no guarding against them: a very fatal instance of this happened to ourselves on the night of the 29th of June, while passing Sadras. About 11 o'clock P. M. there appeared some black threatening clouds over the Sadras hills; it being then almost a calm, the top-sails were lowered on the caps, and the men sent aloft to take in a reef; they had scarcely however laid out on the yards, when such an irresistible gust came down from the hills, that the ship was almost on her beam ends in an instant! the consequence of which was, that the fore and main top-masts, yards, men and all, were carried overboard! The helm having been put up before this, the ship had now gathered some way, and three men were drowned; of those who still held on to the wreck that was dragging along side, fourteen were most dreadfully mangled before we could get them in, though every exertion was used by

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May
&
June.

July.

the officers and men: the darkness, however, of the night, the thunder, lightning, and deluges of rain, all conspired to render this a dreadful scene of confusion!

We were of course obliged to return to Madras, to land our wounded men and refit the ship.

ORDERED TO CHINA.

Early in August we were highly gratified by receiving orders to victual for six months, and prepare to take charge of the China convoy, which was then collecting at Madras. Three other men of war were added, as apprehensions were entertained that Linois might be induced to try his luck once more on the China ships.

PASSAGE BETWEEN MADRAS AND MALACCA.

Aug. 13. We weighed anchor from Madras roads, with upwards of twenty sail for the eastward. Our passage across the bay of Bengal was rather disagreeable, having strong S. W. winds, with a very heavy swell from the southward, that kept the ship constantly wet: nothing, however, occurred worth notice on this part of the voyage.

24. Eleven days brought us to anchor in Penang roads, where we staid collecting and giving the necessary instructions to

31. the convoy, till the 31st of August, when we weighed and made sail from Prince of Wales's island for Malacca. During seven days our progress was so small, owing to calms, contrary winds, and deluges of rain, that we had only got

Sept. the length of Pulo Jara and the Sambelongs, having passed Poolo Diudin at the distance of four leagues. This

7. is a very high island, and appears from the sea to form a part of the coast. On the evening of the 7th we came to an anchor to the southward of this island, the weather beautifully serene, and the sea smooth as glass. The next six days presented a great variety of disagreeable and unpleasant weather, interspersed with frequent thunder-storms, for which these straits are famous.

The high mountains on the Malay and Sumatra coasts attract the clouds, which pour down their contents in perfect torrents, accompanied by zig-zag and ragged lightning, that frequently does great mischief among the shipping, as one of the convoy experienced; having one of the masts shivered to atoms by a stroke of lightning, doing other considerable injury besides, which forced her to remain at Malacca to refit.

WATER-SPOUTS.

In the course of our passage through these straits, we

had several opportunities of seeing those curious phenomena, water-spouts, some of which came occasionally so near us, and were of such a size, as to excite alarm. The following is a very beautiful, but I must confess, exaggerated description of one of them. 1804.
Sept.

“ While from the left approaching we descry,
 A liquid column tow’ring sheer on high;
 Its foaming base an angry whirlwind sweeps,
 While dreadful billows rouse the fearful deeps!
 Still round and round, the fluid vortex flies,
 Scattering dun night and horror through the skies!
 The swift volition and th’ enormous train,
 Let sages vers’d in nature’s lore explain.
 The horrid apparition still draws nigh,
 And white with foam the whirling billows fly.
 The guns were prim’d, the vessel northward veers,
 Till her black batt’ry on the column bears;
 The mine fu’d, and while the dreadful sound
 Convulsive shook the slumbering air around,
 The liquid column, tow’ring to the sky,
 Burst down, a dreadful deluge from on high!
 Th’ affrighted surge recoiling as it fell,
 Rolling in balls disclos’d th’ abyss of hell!”

SHIPWRECK, Canto 2d.

MALACCA.

After a tedious and harassing passage through the islands, rocks, and shoals, that are scattered in the wildest order through these straits, we came to an anchor on the 13th in Malacca roads. 13.

This old and once important city, is now no more than a mere memento of what it once was: though even at present a very pretty place.

About two centuries ago it was the principal mart for commerce in this part of the world, but has been declining ever since under the Portuguese and Dutch; nor can it be expected to revive now under the English, as Prince of Wales’s island will answer all the purposes which it could serve; namely, a port for the China fleet to touch and refresh at.

It is situated on the S. W. side of the Malay peninsula, and in the third parallel of north latitude: yet close as it is to the equator, it is the finest climate in the East Indies; being constantly refreshed with sea and land breezes, which, (with its being a narrow peninsula, and almost encompassed by the sea,) render it remarkably fertile and healthy.

The appearances of the town, the remains of a fort, and a church on a little green mount to the right of the town, are very beautiful from the roads: every part of the sur-

rounding country, as far as the eye can reach, is covered with groves of trees and the liveliest verdure imaginable: even the small islands and rocks situated along the coast, are covered to the water's edge with flowering shrubs.

A small rivulet opens into the sea between the town and fort, which it separates, and forms a landing place for boats; the houses in Malacca are tolerably well built, in the Dutch stile, with broad and straight streets: that part, however, inhabited by the natives and oriental settlers, is like most Indian towns, composed of mere sheds or wooden cots, thatched over with bamboos and mats.

On the southern side of the little river, are the remaining walls of a fort, which does not appear to have ever been a place of any great strength, and is now in a most ruinous condition; a few guns are ranged along the brow of a beautiful little mount above the fort, which serve as a saluting battery, and might repel perhaps a small force.

On the summit of this mount stands an old Portuguese chapel, built in the sixteenth century, but is now in a state of dilapidation.

It commands a picturesque view of the town, the adjacent country, the roads, and a great extent of level ocean; the floor is flagged entirely with tomb-stones, that exhibit a melancholy catalogue of the names of those Europeans, whom the spirit of adventure, or insatiable avarice, have led to this distant spot, to be mingled with their mother earth!

"Perhaps in this neglected spot is laid
 "Some heart once pregnant with celestial fire!
 "Hands that the rod of empire might have sway'd,
 "Or wak'd to ecstasy the living lyre!"

The roof is in some places tumbled in, and the walls, belfry, &c. mouldering fast to decay, the whole having a dreary, forlorn appearance inside.

We were here supplied with great abundance of the most excellent vegetables and fruits we had yet seen in India; and we were not a little gratified and surprized, to find potatoes equal to any we had tasted in Europe. There are a great number of Chinese settlers here, as well as in all the eastern islands, and these form the most industrious class of inhabitants, having their shops well stored with merchandize, with which they supply you on reasonable terms.

There is a very good tavern near the landing place, kept by a Dutchman, where one may dine very well for a dollar, and have a bed included.

The rivers about Malacca abound with alligators, and the woods and jungles with tigers and other wild beasts. The Malays, as well as the Chinese, have a striking nationality, or rather similarity in their features; one face being a prototype, as it were, of those of the whole nation.

It is well known how dangerous these people are with their poniards called *cresses*, especially when they take opium, and run the *muck*, stabbing every one they meet. It is said these weapons are poisoned with the celebrated juice of the *upas* tree, but I believe very few of them have this property. I was once bargaining with a Malay for one of these cresses, which he said was deadly poisoned, and in drawing it out of the scabbard, cut myself between the fore finger and thumb, at which I was not a little alarmed; an old man who was standing by, opening a leaf of betel, took out a piece of *chaman* and applied it to the part: whether this had any effect or not I cannot tell, but I felt no more of the cut.

There is still a little trade carried on at this place, the principal articles of which are as follow:

IMPORTS.

Raw and manufactured silks from China.

Opium from Bengal.

Sugar, cotton, &c. from Bacteria and Bombay.

EXPORTS.

Tin, in considerable quantities.

Gold, and gold dust.

Ivory.

Cloves, nutmegs, and other sorts of wood in large quantities.

STRAITS OF SINGAPORE.

We started from Malacca on the sixteenth of September, and shaped our course for the straits of Singapore, where we arrived in two days with a light and pleasant breeze; we came to an anchor in the middle of these straits for the purpose of collecting the convoy, a part of which we had left behind at Malacca, to repair the damages they had received in the straits by lightning.

The straits of Singapore are formed by a cluster of innumerable little islands, lying off the most southern part of the Malay peninsula. They are covered with woods, have a great variety in their shapes, and are indented on all sides with pleasant little bays and sandy coves, where the finest turtle is found in great plenty. The passage between these islands is in some places so narrow, that we might have almost chucked a biscuit on shore; yet the water was deep,

clear, and smooth as velvet. There can scarcely be a more
 1804. beautiful picture, than the sight of a fleet of ships winding
 Sept. through this romantic group of islands.

The natives came off in their canoes laden with turtle, some of which weighed three or four hundred pounds, and these they sold for a dollar or two a-piece; we of course had *alderman's fare* every day while we continued in these straits.

CHINA SEAS.

At length having got the ships all together, we hurried off, fearing (with good reason) that the north-east monsoon might set in, or at least that we might be baffled between the two monsoons. The next day passed to the northward of Pedra Branca, a rock lying off point Romania, and so called by the Portuguese, on account of its being covered with the white excrements of birds; it has some resemblance to the bass rock in the Firth of Forth. Here the Chinese seas commence, and ships generally take a departure from this rock or point Romania, when proceeding to China.

Next day (twenty-fourth of September) passed Pulo Aore and Pulo Tinon, two islands lying in 101° of east longitude, and of considerable height; at this place we expected to fall in with *Linois*, when we would have surprized him a little with the force we now had (a seventy-four, a fifty-gun ship, two frigates, and a sloop of war): as there were no
 24. appearances, however, of an enemy, the line of battle ship here took leave of us, and returned to India.

We this day lost sight of land, and steered for China with a pleasant breeze and compact convoy; the weather continued uncommonly fine for the next five days, when we made
 30. Pulo Sapata, a very singular rock standing up like a pillar in the middle of the Chinese seas; it is perpendicular all round, and white like Dover cliffs, with innumerable flocks of birds hovering round it, and seems as if placed here by Providence as a mark to guide mariners through those seas, where so many hidden dangers abound!

TYPHOON, OR TYPHON.

Oct. 2. Hitherto we had been sailing on velvet, and with winds much more favourable than we had reason to expect at this late period of the south-west monsoon: the scene, however, now began to shift, and our misery to commence.

The sky this day assumed a very unusual appearance; the skirts of the horizon seemed as if they were tinged with

blood; the black portentous clouds that hung over us, looked as if surcharged with electric fluid, and ready every instant to burst on our heads!

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In the evening the lightning gleamed with such vivid flashes through the air, that it was painful to look around; still, however, unaccompanied with thunder. The rain now began to pour down in such torrents, that it actually appeared to be precipitated from the heavens *en masse*, deluging every part of the ship.

“ Mean time in sable ciecture, shadows vast,
“ Deep ting’d and damp, and congregated clouds,
“ And all the vapory turbulence of heaven,
“ Involve the face of things.”

It had now continued calm for some hours, but soon the gale commenced; and lasted, with some interruptions and various alterations, for four successive days. The wind was first from the westward, but in the course of the typhoon it blew from every point of the compass! As it was, however, generally in our favour, we scudded great part of the time, and of course made a most rapid progress.

It is impossible to describe the unpleasantness (I may say misery,) of our situation during this period. The first twenty-four hours of the gale demolished tables, chairs, crockery ware, and almost every cooking utensil we had on board, so that we could scarce get as much sustenance as would keep soul and body together! 2 & 3.

To add to our *comforts*, we had generally a quantity of water washing about our legs in the gun-room; while the seams of the ship (coming from a hot country) were so open, that the water came pouring down through the decks on our heads!

The frequent shifting of the wind raised such a cross tumultuous sea, that it broke over us in all directions, causing the ship to labour with indescribable violence.

“ Through the black night that sits immense around,
“ Lash’d into foam, the fierce conflicting brine
“ Seems o’er a thousand raging waves to burn!
“ Mean-time the mountain billows to the clouds
“ In dreadful tumult swell’d, surge above surge,
“ Burst into chaos with tremendous roar!”

We this day experienced a considerable intermission of the gale, and towards noon it so far cleared up, that we saw one of the men of war and two or three of the convoy: about this hour, however, and at no great distance from 4.

us, one of the frigates (*La Dedaigieuse*) was completely
 1804. dismantled, and nearly sent to the bottom by the violence
 Oct. of the typhoon!

A MIRACULOUS ESCAPE FROM DROWNING.

The life of one of our seamen was this day preserved in so miraculous a manner, that I cannot help relating it.

4. He was in the *main chains* endeavouring to set up one of the *backstays*, when a tremendous sea washed him clean overboard! The ship was then going between nine and ten knots nearly before the wind, and before she could be *hove to*, he was not less than three quarters of a mile astern.

He was distinctly seen, however, from the mizen top on the rise of every sea, swimming very high out of the water and seemingly with great strength. Four men and two officers jumped into the jolly boat, which was lowered down from the stern, at the imminent risk of all their lives, and they succeeded in unhooking the tackles and getting clear from the ship without accident. An officer from the mizen top directed their route, by pointing with a spy-glass towards the man in the water, and in about half an hour they succeeded in finding him! He was swimming with the utmost composure, his face still directed to the ship, which he said he could plainly see from the summit of every wave; and knowing by the sails that she was *hove to*, he had no doubt but the boat was coming to pick him up. The greatest difficulty, however, still remained, and that was the getting on board; the ship was plunging and rolling in such a manner, that it was very dangerous to approach her: at length, during a momentary lull, they attempted to hook the tackles, but unfortunately only succeeded with one of them, the consequence of which was, that the ship in plunging forward dragged the jolly boat clean out of the water, with her stern uppermost; of course the men and oars were all thrown out of her into the sea!

Their situation at this moment was truly alarming; no boat could be got off the booms in time, as they had all been firmly lashed during the gale. The tackle being instantly cut that hung the boat, she luckily fell on her bottom, but was as quickly swamped by a sea that rolled into her. The officers and men, however, who were floating about, made shift to get to the boat, which, though full of water, was still sufficient to keep them from sinking; and it was something remarkable that the seaman who had been so long overboard, was the *first* who regained the boat this time!

By giving the ship *stern way*, we got so close to them that we were enabled to heave them ropes, by which means they got under our lee quarter and were all saved.

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ARRIVE ON THE COAST OF CHINA.

Our progress had been so rapid during the typhoon, that we made Pedra Branca, a perpendicular rock near Haerlem bay on the coast of China, about two P. M. on the fifth, and hove to, to the westward of it, till next morning. In the course of the night the gale increased almost to a hurricane, and that too, dead on shore!

The situation of several of the convoy was now extremely perilous, as they were much to leeward of us, and completely embayed, without the ability of carrying sufficient sail to extricate themselves; and one of them indeed was obliged to run in at the utmost risque, and take shelter under the lee of a small island, where she lay in safety till the gale was over.

The gale somewhat abated to-day, though still blowing with considerable violence; we were therefore obliged to carry a great press of canvas to keep us from settling down too far in the bay, expecting frequently indeed, that some of the masts would go over the side.

A favourable slant of wind this day, enabled us to run in between the Great Lama, and a cluster of islands called the Nine Pins, where we were soon surrounded by swarms of fishing boats, out of one of which we got a pilot, who offered to take us to *Lintin* for eighty dollars; this being refused, he asked fifty, and ultimately came down to forty, but would on no account accept a smaller sum: this being counted out to him, he very leisurely marched forward to the galley-fire, where he sat down to smoke with the utmost composure, leaving the *pilotage* entirely to ourselves! On being roused up on the quarter-deck, however, he made some trifling signs with his hands respecting the adjacent shores, which we could not well comprehend; in short, we were obliged entirely to trust to our *lead*, while winding in among those islands; and there seems to be very little danger, the shores being so bold that a ship may run close to them.

In the evening, while passing the high peak of Lanton, the pilot made signs to drop the anchor, which we complied with: this is the highest mountain on this part of the coast, and may be seen at an immense distance. In every direction that we now could look, nothing presented itself but the wildest assemblage of mountainous islands that it is possible to conceive, all having a barren inhospitable appearance.

1804. COME TO AN ANCHOR AT LINTIN.

Oct. 8. We next morning got under weigh, and kept working up for Lintin, close to which we anchored in the evening, abreast of the principal village on the south side of the island, and about a mile from the shore.

Lintin lies in the mouth of the river Tigris, about thirty miles above Macao, and is remarkable for a very high peak in the centre of the island; which may be from fifteen to twenty miles in circumference.

It contains three villages, besides some straggling cottages, and is frequently the rendezvous of two or three of the fishing fleets, that are scattered in such numbers over every part of the coast. The principal village is (as I have said before) on the S. W. side of the island, where there is a pleasant bay (called "Lintin bay,") and good anchorage, completely sheltered from the north-east monsoon by the peak. Near this village, at the foot of a little hill, we pitched our tents; one for the surgeon and another officer, one for the sick, and a large tent for the artificers.

9. When we first arrived here, the weather was so hot and sultry, that we generally slept outside of the tents at night, without any danger of catching cold, there being little or no dews, but the most beautiful serene skies imaginable.

The villagers were a little intrusive at first, from curiosity alone; for they never, during the whole of our stay, attempted to plunder or steal the smallest article from our tents, nor to molest us in any respect whatever! an example which I am sorry to say, all our exertions could not induce our own men to imitate. The proximity of a potatoe field to our tents, was the cause of many complaints from the natives, and it required all our vigilance to prevent the sailors levying contributions, during the night, on this favourite root. As our presence on this island excited the curiosity of every man, woman, and child belonging to it; and as our artificers and sick were no less curious, in viewing the grotesque and novel appearance of the Chinese villagers; we were forced to draw a line of circumvallation round the tents, and give orders to the centinels not to permit any communication, but at certain stated hours, when they might negotiate as much as they pleased. We here got fish in abundance, long potatoes, and a few other vegetables, the produce of the island; but our principal supply was from *Achon*, the compiedore at *Macao*, who has the contract for supplying his Majesty's ships with fresh beef, and every description of vegetables, which he sent up to us regularly by junks; independent of

these we had an extra supply for the use of the sick alone, who here became more numerous every day.

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The principal complaints among our seamen in China, were *intermittent fevers*, of the most obstinate kind, *fluxes*, and some *liver* complaints. We had often from sixty to eighty at this time unable to do duty at this island, though no particular cause appeared why the place should be so unhealthy, unless it was the sudden transition from an Indian climate to this one.

We had plenty of amusement in shooting on this island, the thickets being well stocked with doves, and the tanks, pools, and marshes, much frequented by wild duck.

The natives on many parts of the river, higher up than this island, have a very curious method of catching the latter species of game, by wading out with earthen pots on their heads, among flocks of these birds, which are not alarmed thereby, taking them for old pots, &c. floating down on the tide; having got into the middle of them they haul them down by the legs, one after another, until they have a sufficient number under the water, when they return to the shore and bring them to market alive.

There is a watering-place about half a mile from the village, at the foot of the peak, where the stream runs through a bamboo into the casks on a little sandy beach. The water, though none of the best, is as good as any on the neighbouring isles. It may here be remarked, that the water in this part of China, is, generally speaking, of a very inferior quality; we were obliged to start some of it overboard after leaving China.

As we wished to have a commanding view of this little *Chinese Cyclades*, a party of us set out early one morning in order to ascend the peak, which is very abrupt, except on the northern side, where it is of somewhat easier ascent. On our way up, we had opportunities of seeing several pictures in miniature of Chinese industry: every little rill of water that trickled from the summit, was led in zig-zag directions along the sides of the mountain, and made to pass over innumerable little terraces of *paddy* or *rice*, that were formed on every spot that would bear the slightest cultivation! The other parts of the mountain served to feed their goats, &c. The goat-herds' cottages, surrounded with beautiful little bowers, peeping out here and there from among the rocks and precipices. The peak itself terminates in three craggy eminences, or huge fragments of rock, that seem to have been severed from each other by some stroke of lightning, and as the earth has been considerably washed away from about their bases, they appear as if resting on a

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Nov. perfect pivot; that fragment particularly, facing the S. W. impends over a most frightful chain of precipices, which we could not look down upon without shrinking back with horror. We scrambled to the top of this, and on firing our pieces, the concussion of the air made us almost imagine this projection of rock was sliding over the horrid precipice! Were this to give way, it could not stop till it buried itself in the sandy beach at the foot of the mountain.

I could not help thinking, that such an accident would pretty well exemplify that beautiful simile in the thirteenth Iliad, where Hector is represented like a rock rolling down the side of a mountain.

"As from some mountain's craggy forehead torn,
 "A rock's round fragment flies with fury borne,
 "(Which from the stubborn stone a torrent rends,)
 "Precipitate the ponderous mass descends:
 "From steep to steep the rolling ruin bounds,
 "At every shock the crackling wood resounds;
 "Still gathering force, it smokes, and urg'd amain,
 "Leaps, whirls, and thunders down, impetuous to the plain:
 "There stops:—so Hector."

From this elevated situation, we could count between twenty and thirty islands scattered around in all directions, and exhibiting a peculiar wildness and variety in their features.

We could barely make out Macao, on which the Portuguese settlement of the same name is built, and which we afterwards visited. In the contrary direction we could see the celebrated strait, called the Bogue, or *Bocca Tigris*, where H. M. S. *Grampus* was then lying. The north-east view presented the high blue mountains in the interior of the country.

Towards the middle of November the weather began to get cold; the north-east monsoon coming down from the bleak mountains of China and Tartary, felt very sharp and biting to people just arrived from the burning skies of India.

BOCCA TIGRIS.

15. As we expected some bad weather about this time, we prepared to move up to the *Bocca Tigris*, where ships are well sheltered by the surrounding mountains. On the 15th of November, therefore, we struck our tents at Lintin, and removed the sick on-board, who now amounted to 50 or 60, mostly agues, fluxes, and colds. We lost one officer and one man while lying here, whom we buried with the usual ceremonies, on the side of a little hill; the whole of the islanders eying the process with the utmost curiosity. The

villager to whom the ground belonged, did not fail to ask me the next day for *two dollars*, pointing to the grave where the young officer was buried, and whom he had observed me frequently visit while lying sick on the island.

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ANSON'S BAY.

We this day unmoored, and proceeded up towards the Bogue; the *Master* having been sent some time before, to take a survey of the passage, and in two days came to an anchor in *Anson's bay*, so named since the time Lord Anson refitted the *Old Centurion* in this place.

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18.

It lies just without, and on the eastern side of the Bogue, between *Annanhoy* and *Chumpee* forts. The shore all round the bay is so shallow and muddy, that there is no landing except at high water, and that close under the *Annanhoy* fort, among some sharp black rocks.

The last-mentioned fort stands on the eastern side of the *Bocca*, or mouth of the *Tigris*. It is a small semicircular battery, nearly level with the water's edge, mounting twelve or thirteen old guns, of different calibre, seemingly about the size of 4 and 6-pounders, placed on dead carriages, and apparently in a wretched state. On the opposite side, are two small forts, situated on two little islands: the distance across, I think, is about two musket-shots, or thereabouts.

ANNANHUY FORT.

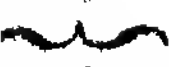
These three little forts, then, (if they deserve these names) form the protection of one of their chief rivers and cities!—So great is their opinion of *Annanhoy*, however, that preceding each vessel that goes out of the *Tigris*, a *passport* is sent to the governor of it, couched (as it is said) in the following terms:

“ The ship ———, belonging to the ——— nation,
“ having paid the proper duties to his majesty the emperor,
“ at this port; you are desired to allow the said ship to pass
“ *Annanhoy* fort without blowing her into the air!

“ Signed,
“ ———, Viceroy of Canton.”

Such is the gasconade of the Chinese about a fort, that a man of war's launch, armed with a *carronade*, would knock about their ears in a very short time.

The Chinese government give particular orders that no European, or European men of war, shall come near their *gun-houses*, as they term their forts; and therefore were not at all pleased to see such large ships close to the *Bocca Tigris*.


 Their jealousy or fear was still farther heightened, when the
 1804. *Dasher* sloop of war passed through the Bogue, and ran up
 Nov. as far nearly as *Wampoa*: on this occasion very strong re-
 monstrances were sent to the chief super-cargo by the vice-
 roy; but they durst not take any serious steps, the men of
 war keeping them completely in check.

SCUFFLE AT ANNANHOY FORT.

They did not prevent our going up into the country at this
 place; but, as we were always obliged to land near the fort,
 they endeavoured to hasten us off from the beach into the
 country; and, on our returning again to the landing-place,
 they would not allow us to go within one hundred yards of
 the gate leading into the fort.—A shooting party of us
 happened one day, in returning from the country, to
 come to the top of Annauhoi-hill, from whence we
 could view the inside of the fort, situated at its base:
 —this exciting our curiosity, we determined to proceed
 down the hill, till we came to that part that directly over-
 hangs the walls, when we would have a complete bird's-eye
 view of the interior of this *great fortress*. We descended so
 quietly, that we were not perceived by the Chinese, who
 were at this time at dinner; and therefore we continued
 some time looking directly over the wall that winds along the
 brow of the hill, taking a sketch of its internal economy. A
 flight of birds, however, happening to pass by, one of the
 gentlemen fired his piece at them; the noise of which, so
 close over the heads of the Chinese, produced the utmost
 consternation among the soldiers, who, running out into the
 parade, saw a number of armed men looking down upon
 them! They instantly took to their *heels*, some running
 into the houses, and others out of the fort altogether.
 —After enjoying a hearty laugh at this specimen of
 Chinese prowess, we descended quietly towards the land-
 ing-place. In the mean time they had leisure to recover a
 little from their panic, and perceive that we were not come
 with any *hostile* intention. This consideration, probably,
 and a sense of shame for their late consternation, enraged
 them to such a degree, that they instantly assembled on the
 beach, armed with bamboos, stones, and every thing they
 could pick up. As our boat was not yet come, and being
 only five or six in number, we began to think we had car-
 ried the joke rather too far: however, it was best not to seem
 intimidated by their numbers, and, accordingly, we marched
 boldly to a little gate that opened on the beach, and where
 the Chinese were posted. The first of us that passed through,
 received a very rough salute of stones; and, knowing that

we durst not fire upon them, they got so bold, that one fellow actually seized the muzzle of my musket, while a second made a blow at me with a bamboo: afraid that my gun, (which had a *hair trigger*) would go off in the scuffle, I had the presence of mind to stop the lock, which the Chinese observing, conceived I had been cocking it, and instantly letting go the muzzle, retreated backwards; in order to improve this hint, I levelled the piece at him, when he made for the fort with as much haste as possible, followed by the whole train, leaving us victors on the field. We precipitated their flight, by firing our pieces over their heads while entering the gate.

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PROBABLE CONSEQUENCE OF KILLING A CHINESE.

The viceroy of Canton would, first of all, seize on the chief super-cargo, or, as he is here called, the “Tipan;” and if he thought the business likely to prove very serious, perhaps all the English would be arrested: the man who committed the crime would then be demanded; for the Chinese have no idea of making a distinction between accidental and premeditated murder, as was fatally exemplified in the case of the poor gunner of an Indiaman some years ago, who was given up, because the wad of a gun, fired by the command of an officer, happened to strike a Chinaman in a boat at some distance, and occasion his death!

It has never been known what became of the poor fellow; some have imagined that he was bow-stringed; while others think that his eyes were put out, and that he still lies an imprisoned victim to the narrow policy of the Chinese government!

It is to be hoped for the honour of Old England, that such a *cowardly concession* will never again be made to the Chinese, in whose eyes we have suffered considerably by this disgraceful affair; they themselves even wondering that we should so easily give up a man for obeying the orders of his superior officer!

SINGULARITY OF THE CHINESE LAWS.

It is worthy of remark here, that, by the Chinese laws, if the person survive the accident *forty days*, and after that period dies, even in consequence of the same accident, yet it is not considered as a murder. When any case of this kind then occurs, it is best to secure the wounded China-man, and have him under the care of Europeans during that space of time; for the Chinese would otherwise perhaps, bring some man who had died a natural death in the interval, and swear

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Nov. that it was the man who died of the accident, in hopes of extorting money, and which might be productive of bad consequences.

A boy wounded accidentally by an European, some years ago, was taken to the English factory at Canton, and with great difficulty the surgeon prolonged his life, until the forty days were expired; when he was immediately sent into the country, and died in two or three days; no notice then was taken of this death by the government, as the prescribed period of time had elapsed before that event took place.

BOATS ON THE RIVER TIGRIS.

The number of junks, and boats of all descriptions, that are seen passing and repassing between Macao and Canton, exceeds all calculation or belief. Some of their junks will carry nearly a thousand tons; and those that trade to the Straits of Malacca, the Eastern Islands, &c. are very great curiosities, containing perhaps two or three hundred merchants, each having his separate cabin, or rather shop or warehouse. In one of these junks, therefore, may be seen almost an epitome of the suburbs of Canton:—ivory-cutters and manufacturers, painters, carpenters, blacksmiths, goldsmiths, &c. all with their various articles arranged for sale in their separate apartments.

The Chinese work their junks and other boats with astonishing adroitness on this river, where they actually seem to fly through the water.

The sails are all made of mats, and are narrow, but very lofty.

Slit pieces of bamboo cross these sails horizontally, at short distances; and to one end of these is attached a *boom-line*, leading forward; to the other, a *sheet* leading aft, by which means their sails stand better, and lie nearer the wind than any European sails possibly can.

When it blows fresh, and they have occasion to reef, they lower away the hallyards, and roll up any length of the sail they please round the lower piece of bamboo, thus reefing their sails at the bottom with much less difficulty than we can at the top; and this they can continue to do, till the whole of the sail is rolled up, adapting it from the lightest breeze, to the heaviest squall, with the greatest facility.

They frequently have two or three masts, but we never saw any with top-masts; the mat-sails extending up along the masts (which are generally very tant) to any height.

On each bow of their junks there is always painted a large eye, and they are astonished (or at least pretend to be so)

that our vessels can find their way through immense oceans without eyes!

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Those who are brought up to boats are in general prohibited from residing on shore till after a certain term of years, unless they have accumulated a sufficient sum to purchase a little house, and a piece of land.

Their fishing fleets are extremely well regulated, acting in perfect concert, and no boat presuming to anchor or weigh until the *Commodore* has made the signal by Gong or beat of *Tom Tom*.

LADRONES.

The mouth of the Tigris, nay, the whole coast from thence to the island of Hainan, is very much infested with pirates, called *Ladrones*. These are outlawed Tartars and Chinese, who, as soon as they lay hold of any boat or vessel, not only plunder it, but condemn the crew to perpetual slavery in the Ladrone fleet. They sometimes, however, relax so far in this respect, as to let old men go ashore on promising to send them a certain ransom, which the liberated person seldom fails to perform with the most religious exactness: fearing, it is presumed, that if they did not do so, and were afterwards captured, they might stand a fair chance of losing their heads; the Ladrones not being very ceremonious in this respect.

The small craft on the river, therefore, are so terrified at the idea of falling into the hands of the Ladrones, that when any of *our boats* were proceeding to, or returning from Macao, a whole convoy of Chinese vessels of various descriptions were seen attending them, and taking advantage of the protection they afforded! Such is the confidence placed in British tars, even in this remote part of the world!

To this I was once an eye witness, the Ladrones having become so bold, that they actually landed at Linen shortly after we left it, and plundered some of the villages. The men of war-junks even, and mandarin's boats, at this time were so frightened, that when a pleasure party of us went in the *Caroline's* launch, from Anson's bay to Macao, we had a convoy of some hundreds of vessels, that came to an anchor when we did, and got under weigh whenever they saw us do so!

NAVAL ENGAGEMENT.

The Chinese *maritime fights* are rather curious, being somewhat different from those of Europeans; for their men of war have *no guns!* or at least very few. Instead of these

they have long slender bamboos, armed at one end with pieces of iron like our boarding pikes, and some like battle-axes; their other weapons, offensive and defensive, consist in general of *baskets of stones*, of different sizes, adapted to the distances at which the engagements happen to commence!

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I had an opportunity of seeing one of those battles once between two fishing boats, and I must confess they made use of those missile weapons with uncommon dexterity: very seldom missing their adversary's vessel at least, and not unfrequently giving and receiving most woful knocks themselves. We were told that the men of war junks sometimes carried matchlocks, but we never could see any of them.

A BARBAROUS CHINESE CUSTOM.

It may not be unworthy of remark here, that if a boat happens to upset on any part of the Tigris, it is against the religion and rules of the Chinese to pick up the unfortunate crew! I have often enquired what could possibly induce them to harbour such inhuman and uncharitable maxims; and was told, that when a boat or other vessel was upset, they considered the lives lost on the occasion, as so many sacrifices to Joss! (the name given to the Deity;) and that there likewise existed some laws, which made the man who should pick up a drowning person, responsible for that person's life, in case he or she should expire in the boat!

Captain C——, of the W——— India-man, was nearly a fatal proof of their strict adherence to these barbarous principles. He was proceeding from the *second bar* where his ship then lay, to Canton, in a light gig, which by a sudden squall, and carrying too great a press of sail, was upset; when himself, two midshipmen, and the boat's crew were left floating on the stream, supported by masts, oars, and whatever they could lay hold of; in this state they continued nearly an hour, several boats passing and repassing in the mean time, not one of which could be prevailed upon, either by entreaties or proffered rewards to lend them the least assistance! At length one of the boat's crew swam off towards a Chinese boat, and laying hold of the rudder unperceived, mounted thereby into the stern, with the agility and resolution of a British tar, seized the helm, and forced the China-men to bear down and save his sinking shipmates! 'Twas said that captain C——— liberally rewarded the bravery of the gallant sailor.

This circumstance took place in December, while several of us were at Canton, and I should hardly have believed that

such inhumanity could exist among a people so polished as the Chinese are supposed to be, had I not seen the parties themselves the night after this accident occurred.

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I shall not attempt to make any apology to my reader, for so frequently glancing at *seemingly light and trivial* circumstances in the course of these sketches; the general features of countries, manners and customs, have long been delineated by able and indefatigable travellers, so that little remains to be collected by the modern visitor, but the scattered gleanings which his predecessors in the plenitude of their harvests, thought it not worth their whiles to carry away. As our organs of perception; however, are different; so the impressions which external objects make upon them, vary in different people; and hence arises a considerable source of enjoyment, in comparing the emotions which scenes and circumstances have produced in other people's minds, with those which we feel in our own, when we are placed in the same situations. I shall therefore continue to depict, in as faithful colours as I possibly can, the appearance of each object as it arises to my view, the sensations which it has produced, and the reflections which it has given rise to.

EXCURSION FROM ANSON'S BAY TOWARDS CANTON.

On the twenty-eighth of November I embarked in company with several other officers on an excursion to Canton; the weather was now so cold, that we were obliged to muffle ourselves up in all the European clothes we could possibly muster; and here many of us became sensible of our improvidence in neglecting to preserve, while in India, those articles of dress which we had brought from a northern climate, but which, while flying under the line, we thought we should never be in need of again. As the distance was nearly fifty miles, we did not neglect to lay in a sufficient quantity of *grub*, as 'tis termed, in order that the interior might be as well fortified against the severity of the season, as the exterior; and this we found a very wise precaution.

28.

After passing through the Bogue, Tiger island (so called from some faint resemblance which it is supposed to bear to a crouched tiger,) presents itself on the left hand; and it was abreast of this place that commodore Anson first came to an anchor after entering the Tigris, to the no small surprise of the Chinese at Ammanboy fort, where they mustered a motly band in hopes of intimidating him from passing the Bocca Tigris. On the right hand the land is flat and swampy, consisting chiefly of paddy fields, intersected by innum-

merable branches of the river; we here saw amazing flocks of wild duck, teal, and paddy birds, flying often so close to us, that we might almost have knocked them down with our sticks, and would induce one to suppose they were never molested by the fatal tube or insidious snare.

By the former, indeed, they are never annoyed, unless when Europeans are passing; as the Chinese contrive to entrap a sufficient number of them, without resorting to any noisy means, that might frighten or render them shy.

From Tiger island until we got as far as the second bar, nothing particular presented itself to our view.

Opposite this sand which runs across the river, there is a stupendous pagoda built on the western bank; it is eight or ten stories high, somewhat pyramidical, and full of apertures in each square, seemingly much decorated; we did not, however, stop to examine it.

PICTURESQUE SCENERY.

Here the scenery begins to assume an interesting appearance; in the back ground, high and fantastically shaped mountains raise their summits among the clouds, while all around (with very little exception,) to the foot of these mountains, the ground seems a level verdant plain, intersected (as before mentioned,) with innumerable branches of the river, and artificial canals. Now it is this last circumstance that renders the scenery so truly picturesque, for a person can only see that particular branch on which he is sailing, but he beholds with amazement a variety of ships, junks, and vessels of every description, gliding as if by the effects of magic, through fields and villages, winding among castles, pagodas, and monasteries, sometimes on one side of them, sometimes on the other: sailing in an infinite variety of directions, and forming the most whimsical, novel, and entertaining prospect I ever remember to have seen! As we approached *Wampoa*, the "plot continued to thicken," and we could do little else than gaze with a mixture of pleasure and astonishment, at the interesting scenes that surrounded us, scarcely a word being spoken in the boat for several miles, so completely was each individual's attention arrested by the passing objects.

WAMPOA.

Wampoa is an anchorage abreast of Dane's island, and distant from Canton about ten or twelve miles; above this place no European vessel is permitted to proceed on any account whatever: indeed ships of any great draught could

not go much farther up, on account of the shallowness of the water: at this anchorage may be seen ships from every great maritime power on the globe, except France, there being none at this time from that country.

In viewing the various national flags flying on board their respective ships at Wampou, it is highly gratifying to Englishmen's feelings, to observe the British, superior in number to all the others collectively: while each individual ship, like a *colossal emblem* of the British commerce, appears to look down with contempt on the pigmy representatives of other nations that surround her!

There is little to be observed of Dane's island, more than that there is a little village on it facing the roads, while a number of villas, pagodas, and mandarin's seats are seen scattered about on the surrounding isles, especially near the banks of the river, where there are *hoppo houses*, where boats are overhauled, and *chops* or permits given by the officers of the customs: they so far respected the *pendant*, however, that we were suffered to proceed without the smallest molestation.

I had almost forgot to mention, that it is at Dane's island where *affairs of honour* are usually settled betwixt European gentlemen. At Canton, therefore, to "throw down the gauntlet," it is only necessary to say, "*Dane's island, sir!*"

JUNK RIVER.

Proceeding up by Junk river to Canton, the scenery becomes more and more interesting every mile; the mandarins seats more numerous, the grounds better cultivated, and laid out in gardens and orangeries, while large and populous villages present themselves at every winding of the stream, and tend not a little to embellish its banks. But what engages a stranger's attention more than all the rest, is the endless variety of Chinese boats and vessels of every description, from the *sanpan* to *junks* of a thousand tons, continually passing and repassing before his eyes: of these the most curious and beautiful are the *tea*, and *passage-boats*. The former are long and very handsome, in these the tea is brought down from the interior provinces to Canton, when they have got a fair wind they make use of sails, but at other times they impel them along by bamboo poles, having a bench running along from one end of the vessel to the other, on each side, and close to the water's edge; on these ten or a dozen men (each with his bamboo) stand, and drive the boat with considerable velocity.

DESCRIPTIVE SKETCHES

BOATS.

The Wampoa passage boats, however, look like little floating castles, so elegantly are they painted and decorated. A dome raised several feet above the deck, and occupying two thirds of the vessel's length, fitted up inside with tables, chairs, &c. all of excellent workmanship, serves as a cabin, where the passengers can sit and drink tea, or loll on sofas, at their ease; on the sides are stairs to ascend into the cabin, and the vessel inside and out, is varnished in the highest stile: these occasionally make use of sails like the tea boats, but they for the most part are sculled by oars on each quarter. They charge a European from six to ten dollars for a passage in one of these from Canton to Wampoa.

Mid-way between the two last mentioned places, we passed a beautiful white pagoda, called the Middle Pagoda; it is very high, slender, and apparently of exquisite architecture. At some distance from the factories we passed the ruins of two European forts, called the Dutch and French follies; one of them situated on a little island in the middle of the river.

DUTCH FOLLY.

It is said the Dutch folly received its name from the following circumstance: a party of merchants belonging to that nation having obtained permission from the Chinese to erect a warehouse in this place for their goods, they contrived to have it constructed in such a manner that it might easily be turned into a kind of fort upon occasion; the windows to serve for embrasures, and so on; having thus far succeeded, they concealed pieces of cannon in casks, and were in the act of hoisting them in, when unfortunately for them, one of the casks giving way, out rolled (to the utter surprise of the Chinese) a piece of *ordnance*! as this was an *article of commerce* which the Chinese were not very fond of *importing*, they of course roused out *Mynheer* in a very short time, from his pretended warehouse. Whether this ever actually occurred, or was fabricated by the Chinese I cannot pretend to say.

THE APPROACH TO CANTON BY NIGHT.

From hence to the European factories, the crowd of boats was so immense, that our progress was exceedingly slow; and night came on before we could reach the city: this, however, is perhaps the best time for a stranger to approach Canton: for then the concourse of boats and vessels of various descriptions, all highly illuminated; the *chop houses* on shore bedecked with great numbers of globular *oil-paper* lamps; the din of the Chinese language on every side; the clangour of their gongs, the shrill notes of their music, and the glare of their fire-works, all combine to form a scene so

novel and striking, that the impression which it leaves on one's memory, can hardly ever be erased afterwards!

It took us nearly an hour, to make our way through the throng on this part of the river, when the sight of *European* or rather *Anglo-oriental* houses announced our vicinity to the factories, which are situated on the north-eastern side of the *Taa* or *Tigris*.

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EUROPEAN FACTORIES.

The European factories at Canton extend a considerable way along the banks of the river, at the distance of perhaps two hundred feet from the water's edge; they consist of a range of very elegant houses, each having the flag of the nation to which it belongs, hoisted from sunrise till sunset, on a flag-staff opposite to the gate of the factory.

Except the *French*, this range exhibited in the day-time, the colours of most of the European *maritime powers*; but the English factory, or rather series of warehouses, exceeds all the others both in elegance and extent; in this great and remote commercial city, the mart of European trade seems to be fixed at the British factory.

Here it is, that one beholds the bustle of China merchants, and people of all descriptions; the mountains (if I may be allowed the expression,) of the most valuable China goods, of every kind, piled up on the beach, to be transported to our ships at Wainpoa; while the *tiny* and *confined commerce of other nations*, renders their representatives despicable in the eyes of the Chinese, who look upon the English as the most *respectable* and *responsible* nation with which they have any communication.—As a proof of this, it is a well-known fact, that the *English boxes of dollars*, having the *Company's stamp* on them, will pass through China, as a bank note does through England; the Chinese never attempting to count them, but trusting implicitly to the number marked thereon: whereas in their dealings with other nations, they take special care to count over every dollar they receive from them.

BRITISH FACTORY.

Before the British factory, and extending nearly down to the water's edge, there is a very elegant *verendah*, raised on handsome pillars, flagged with square marble slabs, and commanding an extensive view of the river, east and west, the Dutch and French Follies, the suburbs, the southern bank of the *Tigris*, and a considerable scope of the country in that direction.

Adjoining this verendah is the long room, where the *Company's table* is kept for the *super-cargoes*; and a very princely one it is: a dinner being every day spread here, at which *kings* might sit down, and consider themselves as "*faring sumptuously!*"

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Indeed it must be allowed, that the East India directors are extremely liberal in the establishments of their servants; and even this circumstance procures them a degree of respect in the eyes of the Chinese, which the agents of other nations may long look for in vain. The *captains* of the Company's ships have always free access to this table I believe, but no others unless by invitation: the officers of men of war are always invited here, and treated in the most handsome manner by the super-cargoes.

The weather was now so cold that we were obliged to have fires in our rooms; for though Canton lies nearly in the same parallel of latitude as Calcutta, yet there is a difference of perhaps 15 or 20 degrees of the thermometer between the two places; caused by the mountains of China and Tartary, from whence the N. E. monsoon blows extremely cool.

A stranger arriving in any foreign country, must of course be very much amused with the novel scenes that surround him, though many of them may not, perhaps, be essentially different from those in his own country; but here he cannot fail to have ample scope for his curiosity, where the *inhabitants, language, manners, customs, even the houses, manufactures*, where, in short, the "*tout-en-semble*" is so specifically *different* to what he had been accustomed to see, that he could almost fancy himself transported into a *new world*.

CANTON.

Canton, if we may judge by the Chinese maps, or by the suburbs, must be a city of great extent. A person may ramble for miles through the suburbs, without meeting with any thing like a termination: he frequently indeed comes to gates leading into the *Tartarean city*, when he is obliged to alter his course, as there are no Europeans permitted to enter that part of the town. There seems to be little difference, however, between this and the suburbs, in respect to the buildings, as we often had long perspective views through these gates, into the streets of the Tartarean city, and observed the same bustle, the same kind of shops, and the same general appearance indeed as outside of the gates. The streets in Canton are very narrow, paved with little round stones, like those of *North Yarmouth*, and flagged close to the sides of the houses. They are about the width of the rows and lanes of English towns; *Market-row in North Yarmouth*, bearing a striking similitude to the generality of the streets in this city, with respect to dimensions, the height of the houses excepted.

There is no dwelling-house to be seen in the streets here; all are shops; they are seldom more than two stories high, the lower or ground floor is more properly the shop, the rest of the house

serving as a store : the door is generally in the middle of the shop, with a window on each side, near one of which there is a counter and writing materials, as books, paper, &c. The rest is crammed on every side with *mustas*, or specimens of whatever they have got to sell.

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There is almost always one of the party sitting at the counter writing, or calculating with his *abacus*, on which instrument a Chinese will perform any operation in numbers, with as much, or more celerity, than the most expert European arithmetician.

It is amusing enough, to see a Chinese chucking about the little balls on the *abacus* with one hand, humming the calculations in his discordant jargon, and noting down the result with the other hand. They are not very neat in their writing materials, being obliged to keep constantly rubbing down the Indian ink on a slab with some water, which they keep by them in a cup; they never make use of pens made of quills, but camels-hair brushes tied to the end of a piece of slender cane, which they hold in their hands in a very curious manner, quite different from our method of holding the pen.

The *Chinese paper* is very thin, pliable, smooth, and delicate, and in a hot country is preferable to European paper, which in India particularly, is very rarely fit to write upon. It seems that the great evaporation of moisture from the surface of the earth in these countries, occasioned by the intense heat of the sun, impregnates the bibulous paper of Europe with water, and is the cause of the ink sinking on it. Whereas the China paper having a fine *glossy surface*, the pores of which are consequently blocked up, the moisture is not imbibed; and hence its superiority over the European, and that kind of the latter, called *vellum*, or glazed over the rough or *porous*. The above-mentioned *evaporation* is likewise the cause of all kinds of metals *rusting* so much more in hot climates than in cold.

It is said that tradesmen are obliged to confine themselves to particular streets according to their occupations; but with very few exceptions this is not the case, at least in the suburbs, for in almost every street you may see a variety of different kinds of shops and manufactures intermixed. *Cabinet-makers*, indeed, seem to be an exception, as they generally occupy streets by themselves; and some other streets are entirely filled with painters, and picture-shops.

The *ivory manufactures* always engage a stranger's attention, when at Canton, and in these the Chinese are allowed to excel all other nations. Their *fans* in particular are exquisitely formed of ivory, tortoise-shell, filagree and sandal wood; besides a kind called japanned fans. Of these the filagree are esteemed the most, at least they are the dearest, being twenty dollars each.

Next the tortoise-shell fifteen dollars, ivory from six to fourteen dollars each, and sandal wood one dollar each.

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These are what are called *first chop* fans; others of inferior workmanship may be got much cheaper. It is astonishing with what dexterity they put on cyphers and coats of arms to any article; they are the most exact copyers in the world, and are always provided with books of heraldry, whereby they are enabled to delineate any figure in the most correct manner.

Their *porcelain* or China ware, it is well known, has not the attractions it used to possess; indeed the Chinese themselves, in a tacit kind of manner, allow our *Wedgwood*, &c. to be equal if not superior to their own *long-boasted manufacture*; of course, to *curiosity*, more than any thing else, they are now indebted for what they annually export to England.

"First *China's* sons, with early art elate,
"Form'd the gay tea-pot, and the pictur'd plate;
"Saw with illum'd brow, and dazzled eyes,
"In the red stove vasescent colours rise;
"Speck'd her tall beakers with enamell'd stars,
"Her *monster-vases*, and *gigantic jars*;
"Smear'd her huge *dragons* with metallic hues,
"With golden purples, and cobaltic blues,
"Bade on wide hills her *porcelain castles* glare,
"And glaz'd *pagoas* tremble in the air.

"Etruria! next beneath thy magic hands
"Glides the quick wheel, the plastic clay expands;
"Nerv'd with fine touch, thy fingers (as it turns)
"Mark the nice bounds of vases, ewers, and urns;
"Round each fair form in lines immortal trace,
"Uncopied beauty, and ideal grace.

"Gaumes! as you now dissect with hammers fine
"The granite rock, the nodul'd flint calcine,
"O'er each red Saggiar's burning cave preside,
"The keen-ev'd fire-synopsis blazing by your side
"And pleas'd on *Wedgwood* ray you partial smile,
"A new Etruria decks Britannia's isle."

Botanic Garden, Canto 2d.

Painting is a very favourite art in this city, especially in oil colours, both on canvass and glass. It is curious to see them painting on the back of the latter substance, where things are so reversed, that one would suppose it an awkward or difficult thing to accomplish, yet they manage it with as much facility as if painting on canvass.

It is singular that not one of their own landscapes is painted at all according to the rules of *perspective*, of which they do not appear to have the slightest idea; yet they *copy* all kinds of European drawings with infinite exactness.

They are celebrated for their happiness in taking the most striking likenesses, drawing every feature with great correctness. Notwithstanding which, they seldom give *satisfaction*; and this is probably owing to their sitting down on these occasions, to *delineate the features*, and not to *flatter the vanity* of their customers, like some of our fine miniature painters!

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There are therefore many laughable scenes between the Chinese and Europeans on these subjects, when one of the latter begins to find fault with a likeness, the China-man generally answers him by saying, "no hab got *handsome face*, how can hab *handsome picture*, massa."

The Chinese very seldom use any fires in their houses, except for *culinary purposes*, even in the coldest weather; for as the thermometer falls, they continue to put on additional clothing, and therefore counteract the effects of cold, rather by *confining* the internal warmth, than by the *application* of external; a practice much more rational and salubrious than that used in Europe.

The families of merchants so very seldom reside in the houses where the business is transacted, that we had very few opportunities of seeing any of the Chinese ladies, except now and then having a glimpse while passing in their palanquins.

These vehicles are different from those of India; the China palanquin standing *upright* like an English sedan-chair; whereas that of India is *horizontal*.

Two poles secured to the sides of the palanquin, and whose extremities approximate within eight or ten inches of each other, rest on the shoulders of a couple of stout fellows for the purpose, the ends of the two poles closely embracing their necks: these fellows trot along with rather a slow pace, and without making that noise which they do in India.

We were informed, that the Chinese government did not allow Europeans to be carried by its subjects at Canton; but when the *Cohong merchants*, &c. sent invitations to Europeans to dine with them, they generally contrived to have a few palanquins sent to the *tipan*, in order to accommodate him and three or four others; which, however, was to be considered as a great mark of attention on their side.

The streets of Canton are so narrow, and the concourse of people so great, that it is no very easy matter to make one's way through them in the day-time.

PICK-POCKETS.

These circumstances are indeed very favourable for a certain class of Chinese *chevaliers d'industrie*, who contrive to pick up a livelihood by watching Europeans when they leave the fac-

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But this is not all; if they see an European of *diminutive size*, or seemingly *weak, timid, or alone*, and at any distance from the factories, three or four of these fellows will seize him in the middle of the street, and instantly strip him of every thing he may happen to have about him at the time! the people in the shops tamely looking on, or perhaps *applauding* the rascals if they execute their manoeuvres very adroitly.

To a scene of this kind, I was once an eye-witness. When another officer and myself prevented a gentleman of the G——s being despoiled by these miscreants. They had seized upon him, pinioned him, and were on the point of stripping him, when we *hoove in sight*, and forced them to abandon their intended prey!

If the inhabitants render no assistance to the stranger when assailed and robbed in their streets, I must indeed do them the justice to say, that they never take the part of their countrymen when they happen to be detected, and even punished by the Europeans.

Cunning and adroit therefore as the Chinese believe themselves to be, they are sometimes foiled in their tricks, as the following incident, which occurred about this time, (and was well known) will evince.

An officer who had a room contiguous to mine in the factory, and who, like myself, had lost a number of *pocket-handkerchiefs*, suggested one morning the follow scheme, which was instantly put in execution.

A very elegant handkerchief was selected, which he fastened, by means of a few stitches with a needle, to the bottom of his coat-pocket; one corner was then allowed to hang out in a very inviting manner, and having armed himself with a good *English oak sapling*, he sallied forth into the streets, in a careless manner, while I kept at a convenient distance *in return*, in order to intercept or cut off the retreat of a flying enemy.

He was too tempting an object long to escape the notice of the "*knights of industry*," and accordingly I very soon observed one of them *making sail* after him: on coming close up, however, he seemed to hesitate, as if the sight of the *British oak* had raised some *qualms of alarm* in his mind: but the *beauty* of the handkerchief was *irresistible*; and *Fukki's* avarice at length getting the better of his timidity, he ranged a second time close up to him, and (while a number of the *honest citizens* eyed him with great satisfaction from their shop-doors), he in a masterly manner made his *coup de main* on the tempting prize! The officer, who, though *apparently* sauntering about in a

careless manner, was nevertheless keeping a *sharp look out*, no sooner felt the electric twitch behind, than wheeling round with a velocity that left *Fukki* no time to sheer off, he instantly grappled the culprit hard and fast by the *Mahomet's lock*, which was coiled up into a knot on the crown of his head! This manœuvre was so dexterously executed, and so unexpected, that a kind of involuntary peal of applause burst from the whole of the Chinese spectators! The officer, who was a very athletic young man, now began his chastisement of the pick-pocket, by belabouring him in a most terrible manner, dragging him from one end of the street to the other, to the infinite astonishment of the inhabitants, not one of whom attempted to rescue their countryman from the rude discipline of the British tar!

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This lesson had such an effect on the whole of the pick-pocket tribe, that for a considerable time afterwards, they had a natural aversion to coming near us, especially if any parts of our handkerchiefs should happen to be hanging out while passing along the streets.

SAILORS HAVE THREE DAYS' LEAVE TO CANTON.

As it is an established custom in the English China ships, that the sailors have three day liberty to go to Canton; and as they generally form parties of twenty or thirty at a time from one ship, many of whom contrive to be "*half seas over*" during the greater part of their leave; it may easily be conceived, that a number of the most ludicrous scenes take place between the *Tars* and *Chinese*: in fact a day seldom passed without our witnessing some of these.

HOG-LANE.

Hog-lane, the general rendezvous of sailors, and the *Happing* of Canton, opens at the corner of the British factory; and here *Jack* gets cased of his dollars, and drunk into the bargain, very soon after his arrival; in short, to the debauched lives which the sailors lead during these periods, and the consequent indirect debility induced thereby, may be ascribed in a great degree, the sickness and mortality that prevail on board the China ships at *Wampoa* every season.

ANECDOTE OF A SAILOR.

The following anecdote related by a captain of an Indiaman, and which, he said, happened under his own inspection, will give some idea of the manner in which this three days leave is sometimes spent.

"Among a party of sailors to whose turn it came to have leave for Canton, there was found one, who (in the sailor's phrase) had

1804. bowed up his jib rather too much in the course of the morning.
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Every China-man almost in Hog-lane goes by some name that may attract the notice of the sailors; as *Jolly-Jack*, *Ben-Bob-stay*, *Tom-Bowline*, &c. which he has painted on the outside of his shop, besides a number of advertisements, *undited* by tars, in the true *nautic idiom* and *style*; which being copied by *Fukki*, and committed to the *press*, exhibit on each side of the street, a *Chinese edition* of the most ludicrous specimens of *English literature*, that are perhaps at present extant in any one collection.

" Their names, their '*trades*,' spelt by th' unletter'd muse,
" The place of '*fine advertisements*' supply;
" And many an '*unouth line*' around she strews,
" Th' a teach '*where Jack may grog and pictures buy*."

It is hardly necessary to remark here, that the English sailors are most completely duped and cheated by their Chinese friends who have in general picked up a few sea-terms, with which they lure them into their shops when passing through the streets.

It is no small amusement to listen to the dialogues that sometimes take place between the tars and Chinese on these occasions; the former being generally half drunk while on shore, and the latter being a very good-natured race of beings: the consequent *relaxation* which the sailors feel, gives play to all that *sea-zeit* and dry humour which characterise the *British seamen*, especially when in a foreign country.

A CURIOUS DIALOGUE.

The following is a specimen of one of those curious dialogues.

Coming out of a shop one day in *Hog-lane*, the sight of a jolly looking tar advancing up towards the door, induced me to stop till he should go past: a *tailor*, however, who stood in the

door of his shop, opposite to where I was hailed him, with the common salutation of, "*D—n mine eyes, Shack! vat fare? vat want buy?*" The sailor, who had just come to town, turning carelessly about, and entering the shop, replied, "*What want buy? why you mallet-headed porpus! I want to buy a Welsh wig WITH SLEEVES TO IT.*" The China-man (to whom the complimentary epithet was equally as unintelligible as the demand of the Welsh wig,) taking it to be some article of dress, hauled down a pair of blue trowsers from one of the shelves, and asked him if it was "*dat dere fashion.*"—"No," cried the tar; "*D—mn my eyes, this is no more like a Welsh wig with sleeves, than a pound of tobacco's like a punchon of rum.*"

The force of this *outré simile* was likewise lost on the poor tailor, who, however, perceiving that he had not hit on the right article, continued to hand down one thing after another, until he nearly ransacked the whole shop; the son of Neptune all the while pouring out a torrent of *nautic jests* and sarcasms on the fat China-man's *stupidity*; who, by this time, having his patience pretty nearly exhausted, and bundling up his wares, somewhat peevishly remarked, that "*he no could savez dat damn fashion!* but if *Shack* would bring *masta*, he would *bab make* in two days." The tar now fixed upon a red baize night-cap, and explained to the tailor how he was to put sleeves to it, at which the China-man laughed very heartily; but knowing the humour of the sailor, he complied, after the latter had deposited a *dollar* by way of security; then taking the *bearings* of the shop, he marched further on to make some other *eccentric bargain*.

SKETCHES IN CANTON.

These scenes, nevertheless, often shift from the comic to the *tragi-comic*, nay even to *tragic* sometimes.

The sailors when drunk, and in any considerable bodies, frequently make most destructive ravages among the *brutle wares* in the China shops; while the Chinese in their turn, on catching any straggling or detached party of sailors, give them occasionally the most unmerciful *bambooing*!

One day in particular, when a great number of men from the China ships (besides two or three boats' crews from the men of war) had come to town, a kind of "*jollification*" (as they termed it) took place between the tars of the two services. The consequence was, that after "*shaking a few cloths in the wind,*" they sallied forth in quest of fun; or, (in one of their own phrases), to kick up a dust among those *outlandish fellows*, the Chinese!

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Various were the skirmishes which occurred in the different streets, during the whole of the day: but towards evening, when they began to muster strong on the water-side, and especially when their wounded and disabled messmates joined them, the national spirit took fire, and a *council of war* being held (not indeed in the most formal manner), it was determined instantly to make a "*sortie*" up *Hog-lane*, and down *China-street*; a route whose topography is well known to most sailors who visit Canton: a kind of *avant-guard* was now formed, by selecting a band of the stoutest among them, who being well armed with *Peking-lanterns**, opened the campaign, by making a most strenuous application of the said weapons to the shoulders of every China-man whom they met in the environs of the European factories!

The Chinese, not all accustomed to such rough treatment, quickly took to their heels, without waiting to remonstrate; but this expedient availed them very little; for their assailants went at least *two feet* for *their* one, and *repeated* their unwelcome applications so often, that they were glad to kick off their *wooden-soled shoes*, and fly in all directions with the utmost precipitation! many of them jumping into the water to avoid the fury of the *tars*, while the grand body pressed up *Hog-lane* most closely pursued by the enemy! A scene of havoc now ensued, which, though not equal, perhaps, to the sack of *Troy* or *Syrause*, was yet sufficient to give the *Cantonese* a tolerable specimen of the prowess of the *British tars*.

Many a picture, china bowl, and mandarin went to wreck, in the course of this expedition; and the invaders would have carried their victorious arms through the whole of the proposed route, had not their further progress been checked by securing the gates leading into *China-street*, and forcing them to return to *Hog-lane*, where (by the bye) not a China-man dared to show his face!

On their arrival at the jetty, however, they found a considerable number of watermen from the boats and junks in the river assembled in battle array; but these were a class which the British held, of course, in the most sovereign contempt, considering them as a set of *out'ragish lubbers*, who arrogated to themselves the *dignified appellation* of *sailors*.

Accordingly they experienced such an onset from the Europeans, that they almost instantly gave way; and those who had not the good fortune to jump into boats, though at the risk of

* A species of heavy canoe, growing in Malacca, and the adjacent isles, and which used to be the principal conveyance of justice at the new settlement at *Pooka Peking*; hence to go, the word of *Peking-lantern*.

broken legs, were feign to put up with plunging into the river at the risk of drowning!

By this time the gentlemen of the factory were applied to; who quieted the sailors in a few minutes, and peace was completely restored.

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STREETS IN CANTON.

In the streets of Canton a cart or waggon is never seen, and even a horse very rarely; one sometimes sees crossing the middle of a street, a flight of twelve or fourteen steps ascending, on the top of which is a plane of three, four, or five yards in extent; then the same number of descending steps: these are the arches of canals, that run up under the streets from the river to the interior part of the city, on which are passing and repassing boats with merchandize, while those who are walking over them know nothing of the matter.

Bales, and other packages of whatever size, are carried on the shoulders of Chinese by means of bamboos, some of which (if the package be large) are made fast to it, while other long pieces of bamboo pass under these again in various directions, until they get a sufficient purchase, when they shoulder their burden and trot off with it like a swarm of ants carrying away a cockroach. Individuals make their bundles fast to the extremities of a bamboo, the middle of which rests across their shoulders, and thus they move along at a good round pace, at every step crying out in an audible voice, "Li! Li!" or clear the way; which is a species of music one is continually regaled with in the streets of Canton.

The elasticity of the bamboo renders it much easier for a Chinese to carry a heavy burden on his shoulders, than the knots which the English porters use, could possibly do; and besides they can go at a much quicker rate.

One sometimes meets with an interior mandarin riding through the streets, but it is very seldom that any vehicle but the palanquin is to be seen.

DRAMATIC REPRESENTATIONS.

It is well known how passionately fond the Chinese are of *dramatic representations*: so much so, that a kind of annual tax is laid on the inhabitants of each principal street, and a house being pitched upon, a *theatre* is erected in front, one story high, decorated with the images of monstrous animals, such as flying dragons (a very favourite figure among the Chinese,) centaurs, and fierce-looking warriors, each having six or eight arms.

Here the *disciples of Rescius* perform from morning till night, to the infinite gratification of the spectators, who are sometimes

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in crowds of three or four hundred, rendering the passage through the street extremely difficult. Though we often stood for hours observing them most minutely, we very seldom could make out either the story or plot. Indeed the Chinese taste for *theatricals* will not do them much credit; for however they may be polished otherwise, yet in this respect they smack very much of the rude and barbarous. Fantastic and strained gesticulations, turgid exclamations, forced and unnatural action, with gaudy and tinsel trappings, seem to be the principal objects of admiration on the Chinese stage!

As for their *music*! (Apollo forgive me for disgracing the name!) it is so execrable, that I think the *cries of jackals*, the *howling of wolves*, the *braying of asses*, and *vulgar wailing of cats* (could they be united into *one concert*;) would form a *divine symphony*, when compared with the Chinese *discord*!

This, however, is only to be understood of the plays *publicly* exhibited in the streets, for it is very different when these are acted in the *private* houses of gentlemen; where the music can be heard without pain, and the other parts of the drama afford infinite amusement to the European.

The *dramatis persone* are all males, or males and *emasculated*: of this last circumstance, however, we could only judge by the voice, which, in many of them, had a good deal of the eunuch tenor. Whatever they are, so excessively loud are they of *acting*, that it is very common to see them faint away, through the strenuous exertions which they make to carry on the representation after their natural powers have been exhausted!

A LARGE JOSS-HOUSE.

Before describing one of their private plays, I cannot help giving a slight account of the celebrated *Joss-house*, and residence of the *holy pigs*, which is situated over the river, and nearly opposite to the factories; a place worth seeing by any European that visits Canton. Having got the Company's *comptroler* to go with us, and explain any thing we wished, a party of us crossed the river in a small vessel and proceeded through the suburbs on the other side until we came to the gate, on passing which, we observed a fine colossal gilt statue, on each side in a niche of the wall.

The one on the right is in a fighting posture, with a frightful countenance; the other seems to be dispensing laws. the *comptroler* told us they represented *war* and *peace*.

The wall that surrounds this joss-house, or rather series of joss-houses, includes a space of several acres, throughout which are scattered a great number of temples, and other places of worship, which it is impossible for me to describe; as they are all different from each other, and filled with innumerable statues,

altars, and symbols of religion, very curious to behold: through these edifices we rambled for several hours, and after all left a number of places unexplored.

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RESIDENCE OF THE HOLY PIGS.

At length we came to the place where the *sacred* or *holy* pigs are lodged; it is a small square on the ground floor, kept very clean, with *priests* always at hand to attend on those *elegant terrestrial deities*! Except the venerable marks of *hoary time*, I could not perceive any thing in the countenances or figures of those *objects of adoration*, that entitled them to rank above their *brothers* in the sty of the poorest cottager!

We asked the compredore if this was one of the *sublime doctrines of Confucius*? but he knew no more of Confucius, than he did of *Oliver Cromwell*.

A CHINESE TREAT.

It is customary for the *cohong* or government security merchants, to give frequent and very superb *treats* to the Europeans at Canton, especially the English, during the winter season when the ships are in China; at one of these I was once a guest, and so highly gratified, that I cannot help giving a sketch of it.

One of the principal of these *cohong* merchants sent an invitation to the *typan*, the *super-cargoes*, *officers* of the men of war and India ships; and indeed to most of the *European* gentlemen of different nations then at Canton, to a dinner at his house at seven in the evening: a little before the appointed hour, a few palanqueens came to the factory to convey the *typan* and three or four others, which is looked upon as a compliment.

It happened by chance that I got one of those vehicles; though before I was half way to the merchant's house, I heartily repented of the *honour* done me; for passing through a narrow street at a considerable distance from the factories, something struck the palankeen so violently, that it was dashed to the ground on its broadside, and myself very much stunned.

I was not in a very pleasant state of mind at this moment, as I expected to be robbed at least, and perhaps *bamboozed* into the bargain!

It must, however, have been from some *accident*, not *design*, for the bearers instantly shouldered the palankeen and trotted off, as if nothing had happened, setting me safe down at the gate of the house. Having passed the outer gate we crossed a court, and entered through a door into a large hall, on one side of which was a very pandy *theatre*, and on the other the table spread out for dinner.

1804. Into the theatre opened several doors for the actors, &c. and
Dec. into that side of the hall where the tables were laid, opened two or three doors that led into withdrawing rooms, where other tables were laid, covered with various kinds of sweetmeats and preserves.

Immediately after our entering, the actors commenced, and carried on the representation in a much more chaste and animated style, than any thing we had before witnessed of this kind at Canton; in short many of us fancied we could make out tolerably clear the thread or plot of the drama; and they did not so far "overstep the modesty of nature," but that we could see plain enough with what passions they were occasionally agitated.

Their music, which consisted of a great variety of wind and stringed instruments, was much *less discordant* than what we had been accustomed to hear at the plays represented in the streets; yet it was still devoid of the smallest pretension to *harmony*.

The *colong merchant* and a few of his relations gave us a very polite and hearty welcome, shewed and explained every thing to us in the most kind manner imaginable; but the women were of course excluded: the male children, indeed, came out and dined with us, sitting on our knees, and eating off our plates with the utmost familiarity; boys of five, six, and eight years of age behaving with the utmost decorum, and as easy in their manners and deportment as the most accomplished courtiers!

Before dinner we ranged ourselves in front of the theatre, and paid great attention to what was going on; at which the actors seemed highly delighted, and strained every nerve in order to exhibit to the greatest advantage.

We were soon called to a more substantial entertainment; for by this time the tables groaned with a profusion of the most savoury viands, *European* as well as *Chinese*. They were interspersed in such a manner, that every person could help himself to dishes dressed *à la mode de Londres*, or *à la mode de Canton*, which ever he might prefer.

It was ludicrous enough to see the awkward attempts which many of us made to imitate the Chinese, by eating with *chopsticks*; the Chinese themselves could scarcely maintain their gravity on these occasions.

The *chopsticks* are formed of small pieces of ivory, or wood tipped with ivory, silver, &c. about eight or nine inches long, and nearly of the thickness of common black-lead pencils. A Chinaman holds a couple of these in the fingers of his right hand, like pens, and manages them so dexterously, that he can pick up a single grain of rice between their extremities with the greatest ease.

As the Chinese live mostly on hashes, or at least have their meat always cut into small pieces, these implements are very convenient for them to eat with; but for my own part, after just tasting one of these messes for curiosity's sake, with *chopsticks*, I deserted it, and applied myself to good beef, turkey, and hams, as being more congenial to the English palate.

There was the greatest profusion of the most excellent wines of every description; and as perhaps upwards of one hundred Europeans (besides Chinese) sat down to dinner, the novelty of the scenes around us, conspiring with the good cheer, did not fail to render this banquet a picture of *hilarity* and *festivity*.

The idea of a large company assembled from various distant nations, and sitting down in this *remote quarter* of the globe to enjoy the *social hour*, could hardly fail to impress the mind with a sense of the inestimable advantages which society has derived from *civilization* and *commerce*!

“ The nobler works of peace
 “ Hence bless mankind, and generous commerce binds
 “ The round of nations in a golden chain !”

The healths of their Majesties, *Britannic* and *Chinese*, were drunk with great glee; the Chinese drinking wine, in compliment to their guests: in general, however, they drink a liquor called *samsoo*; a very favourite beverage in this country.

SAMSOO.

This spirit is considered so *deleterious* to the *European* constitution, that when *Men of War* are sent with convoy from India to China, an order is generally inserted in the public order-book of the ship, most strictly enjoining the captain and officers to use their most strenuous exertions in preventing the smallest quantity of *samsoo* coming on board, while the ship lies in China: as it is found (says the order) to be “ *poison to the human frame*.” This is certainly a very wise precaution; and it is to be wished, that the same order were extended to the *arrack* of *India*; for, after all that is said of it, it is no more a poison than that kind of the latter drink which goes by the name of *Paria Rack*, especially when new. It is distilled from rice, as the *arrack* is; yet it has a somewhat different taste*. I have seen

* *Bontius*, a Dutch physician, in a small treatise on *Oriental Diseases*, published in 1629, speaking of the *Batavian Dysentery*, says, “ The principal cause of this disease, is the drinking an inflammatory liquor called *arac*, which the Chinese make of rice and the *holothuria*, or what we used to call *quabbin* or *quallan*, in Holland. These *holothuria* have so pungent a heat, that the touch of them ulcerates the skin, and raises vesicles. Happy were it for our sailors that they drank more moderately of this liquor: the plains

many of the sailors, while we lay at Lintin, perfectly intoxicated with it, in spite of our vigilance; and I was well convinced that many jars of it went off to the ship, yet I never saw any of those dreadful consequences that are said to result from drinking it; nevertheless, as it is certainly very prejudicial to the healths of the men, it behoves the officers of ships in China to guard against its coming on board as much as possible.

BIRD'S NEST SOUP.

I here for the first time, among a variety of other luxuries, tasted the famous *bird's nest soup*, so much esteemed in China, that it is said they pay an equal weight of silver for the nests; and it forms a considerable branch of commerce.

It is the nest of a small bird that breeds among the cliffs and rocks of the *Philippine* and other eastern Isles. It is said, the bird collects this glutinous substance from the rocks on the shore, and likewise from the sea, while skimming along its level surface, and is supposed to come from the sea-weed; of this the bird forms its nest; which, from its adhesive quality, sticks to the sides of caverns, and the projecting parts of rocks and precipices, safe from the rude assault of every animal but man! who no sooner found that it could be converted into that universal object of adoration—*money*, than he was seen suspended from the craggy eminence, or exploring the murky cave, and despoiling the poor innocent birds of their peaceable habitations, in order to indulge the pampered appetites of luxurious epicures!

I hope the reader will pardon this little digression, when he considers that for his information I voluntarily tripped off from the festive board, to wander among rocks and caves in the *Philippine Islands*.

SHARKS' FINS.

Sharks' fins, of which the Chinese make a very nutritious soup, form likewise an article of luxury among these people; there is a considerable trade in that line carried on between this country and the *Malabar coast*, where there is a fishery for the purpose of taking sharks. Both these dishes, but particularly the birds' nests, are reckoned by the Chinese to be exceedingly nourishing, and stimuli of a particular nature.

of India would not then be protuberant with the innumerable graves of the dead!"—*BONNIE'S*, p. 16.

The *holothuria* is a small marine animal, (belonging to the order of *vermes mollusca*), commonly measuring eight inches in length when dead, but alive it extends itself to more than a foot, or contracts itself into a ball. Its back is covered with a variety of fleshy pyramid-like nipples, and the belly with cylindric tentacula: it dwells near the shores where the water scarce rises to a fathom's height.

After dinner, a most elegant *dessert* covered the tables, consisting of all the fruits of the season, with all the sweetmeats and delicacies so much used in China: the *wine* in the mean time circulating with an *increased velocity* after each toast.

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SHAM FIGHTS, &c. ON THE STAGE.

Our attentions were now once more directed to the representation, which was evidently *historical*, and seemed to be taken from that period of their history in which the *Tartar princes* mounted the throne of *China*; for towards the end of the play, a most bloody battle was fought between the Tartars and Chinese, in which prodigies of valour and agility, or rather *deception*, were performed. Heads were here seen *dissevered* in a manner from the bodies, and dangling by a small piece of skin, while the combatants were carried off the field! Some were *transfixed* with darts and javelins, the points of which we could plainly perceive projecting at the opposite sides of their bodies; while others again, with battle-axes wedged into their skulls, seemed to deluge the field with gore. How they managed to perform these deceptions so well, I confess I could not make out; yet the actors were all young lads.

This sham-fight lasted about a quarter of an hour, accompanied with the most savage martial music; after which, the play terminated, and tumbling commenced. The Chinese boys, from the *flexibility* of their joints and muscles, and from their being brought up to it from their infancy, are famous at this kind of diversion; and indeed I did not think the human frame capable of bearing the distortions and exertions which these little fellows practised with surprising adroitness.

They would pile themselves up in the forms of castles, turrets, pagodas, &c.; and while we were gazing at them in astonishment, these figures would all at once vanish from our sight! With this part of the entertainment, therefore, we were highly gratified.

JUGGLERS.

When the tumblers had finished, we withdrew for half an hour, to take some refreshment, and on our return to the theatre, we found the *jugglers* or *legerdemain-men* ready to exhibit their *chef d'aures*. The Chinese are noted for these deceptions, as well as the Indians, and we were very much amused by their tricks, as they were all new to us, though many of them were perhaps not superior to those of Breslau, or many other deceptions shewn in England, and certainly not equal to some we afterwards saw in India. This terminated the night's enter-

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tainment; and we took leave of our kind Chinese host, with appetites and curiosities highly gratified.

LEAVE CANTON.

Our pleasure party was now forced to leave Canton, though with considerable reluctance, as we every day found something new to occupy our attention or excite our curiosity: the season however of our departure from China drawing near, and as we had one more excursion to make previous to that period, we hurried off from Canton on the 22d December, and got to Anson's bay the same night. The weather was now uncommonly cold, and in fact a kind of hoar frost could sometimes be perceived on the fields in the mornings.

EXCURSION TO MACAO.

23.

Our party having fitted out the ship's launch with a week's provision, and plenty of arms to guard us against the *Ladrones*, we this day set off on our excursion to Macao. It was on our little voyage down to this settlement, that we had the satisfaction of seeing a whole *convoy* of Chinese small craft take the advantage of that protection which even the *boat of a British man of war* could give them against the *Ladrones*, who infested their *own rivers*!

PORPOISES.

It is a curious circumstance, that the porpoises in the river Tigris are perfectly white, and appear like so many human corpses floating about: a most disgusting sight! If I remember right, they are the same in the river St. Lawrence, in North America.

MACAO.

On approaching the city of *Macao* it has a very handsome appearance from the sea, the houses and streets being well built, regular, and the former (as is the Portuguese custom) perfectly white. The land on each side is craggy, with forts, churches, and monasteries, erected on the different eminences.

That part of the island of Macao where the Portuguese are allowed to reside, is a *peninsula*, separated from the main body of the island by a narrow isthmus, across the middle of which the Chinese have thrown a wall, called the *Boundary*. In the centre of this wall is a gate, a guard-house, and a party of Chinese soldiers, to prevent the smallest communication.

The peninsula itself is composed of two rugged hills, joined together by a low neck of land, on which the city of Macao is

built, extending from shore to shore. Thus situated, it is capable of being well defended by the craggy heights on each side; but the Portuguese have taken little advantage of this circumstance; and indeed so badly is it fortified, that it is supposed five or six hundred men, with a ship or two of war, would take the place with great ease.

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The city is very populous; but the *Chinese* far exceed the number of the *Portuguese* inhabitants, who are here, as in most of their Indian settlements, a very degenerated race! marrying and blending with the natives, till the shade of distinction is completely obliterated! This is not the case with the English (except in a very trifling degree); who on that account preserve and support the superiority of their character, in the eyes of those nations of colour where they form establishments.

Though this is called a Portuguese settlement, yet so much are they at the mercy, and under the controul, of the Chinese, that the latter will not permit them to have more than a few weeks provisions on the island at one time; nor could the Portuguese procure the smallest supply from any of the neighbouring isles, without leave from the viceroy of Canton! in fact, they are little better than the *vassals* of the *mandarins*, who must be consulted on so trifling an occasion as that of sending off a few refreshments of fruits, to a ship in the roads! Here the *English super-cargoes* reside from March till October; during which interval we have no commerce going on at Canton. On the top of one of those craggy hills, and commanding a very extensive and picturesque view, is *Camoen's Cave*, where they say that celebrated navigator and poet used to sit and meditate, when writing the *Lusiad*. Adjoining this, is the *chief super-cargo's* garden; in which are several beautiful and romantic spots, well worth visiting.

A tolerably-good road is formed from the city round the western side of the peninsula, by the *Boundary*, and back along the eastern to the opposite side of the city.

This is a very pleasant ride mornings and evenings; the horses at Macao being small and sure-footed: but strangers ought to be very cautious, as the Chinese guards at the *Boundary* always endeavour to inveigle Europeans inside the gate, when they instantly secure them, and make them pay enormous sums before they release them: and even then frequently bamboozing them, by way of impressing it on their memories!

The Chinese seem to hold the Portuguese character in very little estimation; as the following circumstance, which happened some years since, will set in a clear point of view.

It is well known, the "*lex talionis*," or *life for life law*, prevails in China; and it unfortunately happened that in an affray

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between some Portuguese and Chinese soldiers, one of the latter was killed. A dispatch being sent off to the viceroy of Canton, a council was held, and the circumstances having been taken into consideration, it was determined that *two Portuguese* should be demanded, and their lives sacrificed as an equivalent for the life of *one China-man*! To the honour of the Portuguese governor, however, he obstinately resisted the demand; and would not even give up the man who committed the murder, but ordered him to be publicly shot by his own countrymen, before the eyes of the Chinese, who by those means were appeased and the affair dropped.

While we lay here an English boat's crew happened to land in the Chinese side of the Boundary, and were immediately imprisoned; the sum of two or three thousand dollars being demanded for their enlargement. The *Catiline* was therefore moved down a-breast of Macao, and a message sent to the Portuguese governor, who applied to the mandarins for the release of the English, but without effect, as they expected a considerable ransom.

A message was therefore sent to the *mandarin* in the name of his *Britannic Majesty*, demanding the *instant* release of his majesty's subjects, with an intimation, that if this lawful demand was not directly complied with, *force* would be used to compel him to it: but *Fukki*, though he had no small *itching* for the *dollars*, was not at all inclined to *risk a broadside* from the *Tars of Old England*; on their account and therefore the men were given up the moment he received this message.

The *Tupa*, (a safe harbour, where commodore Anson hove down the old *Centurion*) lies between two islands about four miles from Macao; and here the *Dedaigneuse frigate* lay, all the time we were in China, without experiencing the least degree of sickness;—whereas the *Caroline* and *Grampus* had half their men laid up with agues, fevers, and fluxes, at *Lintin* and *Anson's bay*.

The *Athenia*, 64, which ship arrived in China early in January, 1805, suffered still more from sickness than we did. *Macao roads* are therefore much healthier than any of the anchorages farther up the river, which indeed is generally the case in all rivers of hot countries.

Macao road, however, is objected to on account of its openness, should a gale of wind take place; but during the months of October, November, and December, we did not experience any weather that could damage a vessel lying in these roads; and had we continued here, instead of higher up, I am convinced we should have evaded great part of the sickness, and mortality that prevailed on board.

Macao is the only European looking city we had yet seen in India or China; for the Portuguese, contrary to the practice of most other European settlers in hot countries, make very little difference in the construction of their houses, whether on the banks of the Ganges or the Tagus: whereas the people of other nations in general, but the English in particular, leave no means unemployed, to obviate the effects of climate, by constructing their habitations in the most airy manner imaginable.

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The *trade* of this place seems now reduced to a mere shadow; the principal branch being that of *smuggling opium* ashore here, which is afterwards privately sold to the Chinese, at a great price; as these people have of late got exceeding fond of this drug, which they smoke and chew *clandestinely*, the use of it being strictly prohibited by government.

We could hardly help smiling at the ridiculous figures which the Macao citizens cut, (at least in our eyes) while strutting through the streets, barbers, tailors, &c. all with *long swords*, *cocked hats*, *powdered hair*, and perhaps *no shirts*.

We spent a *merry Christmas* at this settlement, and then embarked in our launch for Anson's bay, landing and shooting on all the intermediate islands: Lintin among the rest, where our old friends the villagers were highly rejoiced to see us, making us a present of a basket of sweet potatoes and other vegetables.

SAIL FROM CHINA.

On the 1st of January, 1805, the Caroline dropt down to *Lintin*, in order to collect the convoy, which was directed to assemble at this place. On the 5th, the men of war and merchant ships broke ground, and steered past *Macao*, with a stiff breeze, that came down cold and dreary from the bleak Chinese mountains.

The weather was now so inclement, that we were all heartily glad to take leave of a country, which we had approached about *three month* before, with *curiosities* so *heavily* excited, that we thought as *many years* would scarcely be sufficient to gratify them! Such is the restless disposition of the human mind, never contented with the *present moment*, but always looking forward to a long train of pleasures, which *imagination* is sure to keep painted in *perspective*; generally beyond our reach, but if *haply* attained, falling far, far short of what they seemed in *anticipation*.

" Pleasures are ever in our hands or eyes,
 " And when in act they cease in prospect rise:
 " Present to grasp, yet future still to feel,
 " The whole employ of body and of mind.

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" Meanwhile opinion gilds with varying rays
 " The painted clouds that beautify our days ;
 " Each want of happiness by hope supplied,
 " And each vacancy of sense by pride :
 " These build as fast as knowledge can destroy ;
 " In folly's cup still laughs the bubble joy ;
 " One prospect lost, another still we gain,
 " And not a vanity is given in vain.

We were no sooner out of sight of the bleak coast of China, than the skies cleared up, and the north-east monsoon blew clear and pleasant over the scarcely ruffled surface of the ocean. We steered a direct course for the *Paracels*, passing to the southward of the island of *Hainan* : we crossed the centre of that space in which the *Paracels* are laid down in the charts, but saw nothing of them ; and on the 8th made the high land of *Cochin-China*, to the northward of *Cape Avarella* : as we coasted along in the night, the mountains, which are here very high and rugged, seemed to be in a complete blaze, having been fired by the inhabitants for some purpose or other, and exhibited a very grand illumination.

Cape *Avarella*, the highest mountain on this part of the coast, is sufficiently singular to be easily known ; but there is on the summit of a mountain near this, a very curious projection, which has exactly the appearance of a gigantic sentry-box, and proves an excellent land-mark for mariners.

STRUCK ON VAN HOLLAND'S SHOAL.

9 At half after one o'clock this day, while steering along shore with a fine six knot breeze, the *Grampus*, *Glutton*, and *Canton* struck suddenly on a shoal about a musket-shot from us : the whole convoy was now thrown into the utmost confusion, no one knowing which way to steer, as the shoal at this moment was not known. Most of the ships *hove to*, and those which did not strike, had in general six fathoms water ; we observed in a few minutes, that those three ships, after striking several times, (his Majesty's ship *Grampus* violently) gradually deepened their water, till at length they passed over the tail of the shoal, and fortunately without receiving any material injury.

We now found that it was *Van Holland's Bank or Shoal* which the ships struck on, and the following were the bearings, &c.

Poolo Cecir do Mer	E. S. E. $\frac{1}{2}$ S.
Poolo Cecir de Terre	N. 17° E.
Tackow Mountain	N. 20° W.

IN INDIA, CHINA, &c.

Latitude . . . 10° 41' N.
Longitude . . . 108° 44' E.

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ARRIVE IN THE STRAITS OF SINGAPORE.

We this day discovered Poolo Aore, with several ships at anchor under its lee, which we at first suspected to be Admiral Linois; but proved to be *Admiral Rainier*, with the *Triton*, *Albion*, *Sceptre*, and *Dasher*, come to protect the convoy through the straits. Here we lay at anchor, in a small bay on the north side of the island, for twelve hours, where there is a small village of Malays, who brought off some *vegetables*, *fruits*, and *cocoa nuts*, the only produce of the island. It is very high, and covered with a close and lofty wood, which is said to contain several species of animals, but the *underwood* and *jungle* preserve them from the guns of the Europeans. At midnight we got under way, and steered for *point Romania*; and the next day passed through the cluster of isles that form the *Straits of Singapore* with a fine fresh breeze, notwithstanding which our old visitors brought us off several *large turtles*, in their canoes, which were sometimes dragged under water and upset by the rapidity of our motion. Still they persevered, and managed to bring some on board, at the usual price of one or two dollars each.

Those poor creatures make their livelihoods by these little periodical markets which they meet with for their turtle, among the fleets passing through; and a very sharp look-out they keep for the English China fleet, which is their grand market. They never fail to beg a *glass* or two of *arrack*, after delivering the turtle, which generally sets them half mad; and I have frequently seen them cut such *flourishes* with their *paddles*, in going ashore, that they have actually *upset their canoes* in the height of their *transport*.

ARRIVE AT PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

On the 15th we anchored for a few hours in *Malacca roads*, and then pursued our course through the straits for *Prince of Wales's Island*, where we arrived on the 20th of January, after a remarkably quick passage of only fifteen days from Lintin in China.

POOLO PENANG.

As ill health now obliges me to quit the ship, and confine my sketches within the narrow boundaries of a small island, those of my readers, whom I have not been able to interest so far in my favour, as to accompany me in my seclusion, are requested to

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pass on to Madras, where the ship again makes her appearance, and where they may meet with something perhaps more entertaining.

To the small number of my indulgent readers who may be willing to spend a few months on this pleasant island, I have two apologies to make:—1st. I have to apologize for this piece of egotism, which though I detest from my heart, yet I found unavoidable here, as well as on several other occasions, where descriptions are given of places and things totally unconnected with the ship, or the common occurrences of the voyage. 2dly. I have to apologize for introducing such a seemingly foreign subject as the following, viz.

A SKETCH OF THE LIVER COMPLAINT.

Indeed I must confess I have been wavering a good deal in my own mind respecting its insertion, but when I consider how natural it is for every one approaching a foreign climate, where a peculiar disease is prevalent, to be very solicitous with respect to its nature, (the disease) appearance, means of avoiding, and method of cure: and above all, when I reflect, that nothing can induce young men to avoid the causes of a disease, so much as the exhibiting to them view a picture of its consequences, I am inclined to risk the censure of *many*, in hopes that it may enable a *few* of my readers to avoid that dangerous and painful illness.

*Quoque ipse miserrima cidi,
Et quorum pars magna fui!*

The following sketch of the liver complaint may be depended on as correct, having been written *on the spot*, by a medical gentleman, who had frequent opportunities of seeing the disease.

“This complaint is much more frequent in the *East Indies*, than in any other tropical climate; and it is very difficult to assign a good reason for this circumstance, as it is not in general much hotter here, than in the *West Indies*, and many other intertropical countries. besides which, India is exempted from most of those pestilential diseases that make such ravages elsewhere.

“It is nevertheless, highly probable that the liver complaint is a much more common disease, even in cold countries, than is generally imagined, and that it is frequently *not noticed*, because *not suspected*.

“Indeed when the size and structure of this great gland are considered, and the secretions which are performed in it, it seems wonderful that it is not even oftener diseased than is really the case.

"The *liver complaint*, termed by medical men, "*Hepatitis*," and denoted in inflammation and enlargement in the substance, or an *effusion* and *thickening* in the *membranes*, of that organ, terminating generally in resolution, abscess, or *hemorrhage*, begins for the most part with some febrile symptoms, which are accompanied by pain in the right side, or which is more frequently the case, with a severe pain extending from the right side across the stomach to the left, — Thus it is probable, has induced many to consider it as a disorder in the stomach, and to treat it accordingly, especially on first coming to the country, before they have had sufficient experience in the different appearances, which it occasionally assumes.

"This pain is often accompanied with cough and difficulty of breathing, and the person affected cannot bear external pressure, on the part; the pain too is always aggravated after eating anything, the pulse is hard and quick, and the most horrid dreams assail the patient the moment he falls into a doze of sleep.

"In a few days, it generally happens, that a dysentery comes on, and accompanies the disease through all its stages — In fact *enteritis* and *leptitis*, in this country, are little more than two terms for the same disease, the former being rather a symptom of the latter, than a specified disease itself — they are both therefore cured by the same medicine.

"It is generally supposed, that a pain in the tip of the right shoulder is a characteristic mark of the liver complaint — This is a symptom, however, which seldom makes its appearance till the disease is in a chronic state, and one more should not be expected in recent attacks.

"Another erroneous supposition is, that the patient can only lie on the *right side*, yet I have known many that could lie much better on their back, or on their sides, than on either side."

"I think the *principal* signs which announce severe disease may be reduced to three, — the fever, the enlargement of the liver, and a very violent and unrelenting dysentery."

"The *pressure* to and of the liver is prolonged, is with few degrees of diminution or intermission, whereas a state of *intermission* is not to be expected."

"And last, (concomitant) is *intemperance* [especially among *young men* in the *army* and *navy*, &c. on their first arrival in the country.

* It is not the experience of the natives, but the uncertainty of the various symptoms, &c. of this disease, which induces them to make a *liver complaint*, a *fever*, &c. &c."

"This is not the case in the *European* population of *England* &c. &c. — The disease does not occur in the *European* population, but is almost entirely confined to the *Indians* and *Malays* &c. &c."

1805. I believe that generally speaking, it is in the power of most
 Jan. Europeans in India, (excepting the army when actually in the
 field) to avoid the *two* first mentioned causes, the *third*, it is evi-
 dently in the power of any one to avoid, if he chooses.

“ I do not indeed mean to say that by using every precaution
 which human wisdom can suggest, it is possible to evade this
 disease always — I only mean to say, that by guarding against
 the causes above-mentioned, it is highly probable that one may
 live in this country, *many, many years*, and enjoy good health,
 without being exposed to a long list of disorders prevalent in
 temperate climates, but unknown in this.

“ When this disease is taken early, it may *almost always* be con-
 quered by the following concise method of treatment. •

“ 1st By bleeding to eighteen or twenty ounces, if the person be
 of a full habit of body, if it be the first or second attack, and
 particularly if he is fresh from Europe.

“ This may be carried still farther according to circumstances.

“ 2^{dly} By purgatives, especially *calomel* ones, which some-
 times check the disease at once.

“ 3^{dly} As the above-mentioned are mere preliminaries, the
grand specific must be applied to, as soon as the operation of the
 purgative medicines is over. I mean *Mercury* that *incalculable*
and astonishing medicine, the sheet-anchor in this, as well as in
 most other diseases of the country.

“ It is really hard to conceive how Europeans would manage,
 deprived of this wonderful drug, when it is considered how
 many thousands annually owe the *preservation* of their lives to its
 effects.

“ It may, and indeed ought to be used, both internally and
 externally.

“ *Internally say thus*

Take four grams of Calomel — and one grain of Opium, or

sometimes the stomach is more internally affected and produces the
 extensive inflammation whence a total obstruction to the
 general secretion, in others the *epithelial* inflammation covers the
 and *hyperæsthesies*.

“ More frequently the secretory vessels of the Liver become first *torpid*
 and *torpor* with consequent *gall stones*, or *serous* of the vessels, and direct
 or concomitant Jaundice — or it becomes *inflamed* in consequence of
torpidus torpor — and this inflammation is in part transformed to a more
 sensible part, which is acted with it, and produces the rose cutaneous
 on the face, &c.

“ In some cases *torpor* of the liver produces pain without the
 gallstones or cystitis, and in these *epilepsy* or *insanity*, we often can
 cure them. DAWSON.

• The following may perhaps answer the purpose
 as a substitute for Calomel, but must be given in five gram doses every

perhaps better to take only half a grain of Opium; this to be taken in a little jelly, crumb of bread or any other convenient vehicle, and repeated every four hours, until it sensibly affects the mouth, using at the same time mercurial frictions on the thighs, arms, &c. to hasten the operation of the calomel for the great object, is to get the mouth *well affected*, as soon as possible; Shortly after which, the patient will feel an *alleviation* of the symptoms, and that, *almost without a doubt*, for so certainly efficacious is this powerful metal, that as soon as the medical practitioner perceives the patient's mouth become to *act*, he can *confidently assert* that he is *out of danger*, although at that moment there is no other apparent symptom of his getting better.

105.
Jan

“When therefore it is found that the mouth is slowly being affected, and the disease goes on rapidly, medical men in this country often increase the dose of calomel to *ten or twelve grains*, three times a day, and but too, without any fear of hurting the bowels by the influence of calomel, for experience has shown that a *small* dose of calomel will not be productive of so much griping as a *large* dose would.

“It is impossible to describe the agreeable sensations, which one feels on being relieved from the liver complaint or dysentery by this medicine—the peculiar expression which people make on the occasion, when I find how they feel, “that they feel *refreshed*,” compared to the state they *formerly* were in.”

“The moment this change takes place, the mercury should be discontinued, as the salvation often runs on these occasions to a great height and proves uncommonly distressing to the patient, keeping him for weeks afterwards in great misery, and unable to take any aliment with any kind of comfort, on account of the soreness of his mouth—on recovering the use of his jaws, however, he generally makes amends for the fast which he has kept, as the appetite is always exceedingly keen, after the operation of mercury.

By the above plan we describe a generally successful, but I could not communicate, the action of the medicine in the kept up by frictions, until every symptom has disappeared, and taken for some time longer to prevent relapses. While these methods are pursuing, biters (after evacuation) will of course be put to the sick, to relieve the pain, and other occasional symptoms ob-

* I have made a friction with this on the feet so as to get it to the bottom of the article, and therefore it will be more effectual to Calomel.

length the friendly tomb, opening its "marble jaws," receives the wretched carcase, and terminates its load of miseries!"

1804.

Lib.

"It is true, indeed, that a return to his native clime, sometimes protracts this fatal catastrophe: but what is this more than a prolongation of his sufferings?"

May this *picture*, which is *far* from being *too highly coloured*, ever flash across the memory of the *hardless young Euro-Asian*, when about to *decide* for a "heavenly rule of *temperance*!"

May it act the friendly part of a *Pharos*, to warn him when approaching the shoals of disformable disease, and the writer's object will be attained — — — to let him be assured, that in taking leave of the fertile hills of *Illion*, the hoath-clad mountains of *Satom*, or green hills of *India*, to pass the fiery ordeal of a *tropical climate*, unless he at the same time, bids adieu to all *Bacchanalian excesses*, in short, unless he makes *temperance* his motto and guide, he will not expect to revisit his native clime, with that greatest of all terrestrial blessings — — — *Mens sana in corpore sano*. — — — "If *all's of body, per's of mind*," — let him remember that the acquisition of even a *perfectly* fortune, will but add a long list of *trials* to the catalogue of his *corporeal sufferings*! for when he finds himself possessed of the means of *proving*, without the power of *enjoying* the good things of this world, will they not be to him to what the waters were to *Tartarus*?"

"And warn'd by such a counsel let a to shun

"The fatal path where thousands are undone."


POOLO LUNANG OR PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

Prince of Wales's island, called by the natives *Pulo* or *Poc's Poom*, from a Malay word signifying *Draca-out and Betel*, lies on the fifth parallel of north latitude, and in 109° 20' 15" (Greenwich town) of east longitude, at the entrance of the straits of Malacca.

It is somewhat in the shape of an oblong square, about six-

* Oteme meet! thou support'st, I'll admit of other virtues! thou preserv'st and restore'st *humanity* and *peace*! thou art the guardian of the dignity and liberty of *human beings*, from the wretched, inhuman slavery of *sensuality*, *lust*, *custom*, and *example*! thou art the lightener of the understanding and memory! thou'st a tutor of *life* and all its *concerns*! thou art a companion of reason, and guide to the passions! thou bountiful rewarder of thy admirers and followers! how do I now exclaim, *Glory to the unending glory of the virtuous*! — — — and in what *rapturous delight* can thy friends raise up a *praise* to thy praise."

Philosophy of Medicine, vol. 2. page 114.

 teen miles in length, and from six to eight in breadth, distant 1804. between two and three miles from the Malay shore.

Feb. It was given to Captain Light by the king of Queda, and first settled in 1786. The greater part of the island is occupied by a lofty irregular ridge of mountain (running in the direction of the island, *north* and *south*), the northern extremity of which, is by far the highest, and here they have a signal-house, and several *bungalows* erected.

The whole of this ridge is covered with a forest of trees of immense size, and between its eastern base and the sea, facing the coast of Queda, there is a level slip of land, from two to four miles in breadth, and ten or twelve miles long. This is well cultivated and laid out in gardens, plantations of *pepper*, *betel*, *areca*, *cocoa-nut* trees, &c. intersected in all directions, with pleasant carriage-roads, whose sides are lined with a variety of shrubs and trees that are in perpetual verdure. The whole of this space is interspersed with *villas*, and *bungalows*, where the Europeans occasionally retire to enjoy the country air, as a relaxation after business in town.

On the north-eastern point of this slip of land are situated *Fort-Cornwallis* and *George-town*, called by the natives IAN-JONG PAI NAIGUI.

This island may contain of European settlers and their dependants, Malays*, Sumatians, Chinese, &c. 11,000 souls.
Of Lunatics - - - - - 1,000 do.

Total - 12,000

* Though the *Malays* in this island all use *crosses*, yet I believe there are very few of them poisoned in any other way than by *heating*, and then *pouring* them into *the jaws*—the first this produces makes a most dangerous wound, not, however, so dreadfully fatal as the gum of the *Cypripedium*, with which it is said they sometimes poison their arrows and darts. Indeed the wonderful stories related of this poison, are now to be but much disregarded. Dr. Darwin, nevertheless, in his “*Lines of the Plant*,” gives a beautiful description of this singular tree, from which the following lines are extracted.

“Where seas of glass with gay reflection smile,
“Round the gay coasts of Iw’s palm-isle,
“A spacious plain extends its upland scene,
“Rocks rise on rocks, and fountains gush between;
“Soft zephyrs blow, eternal summers reign,
“And showers prolific bless the soil, in vain!
“No spicy nutmeg scents the vernal gales,
“Nor low’ring plantain shades the mid-day vales;
“No step retreating, on the sand untraced,
“Invites the visit of a second guest!
“Fierce in dread silence on the blasted heath,
“Tell *uzas* sits, the *hydra-tree* of death.”

For the correctness, however, of this rough estimate I cannot positively vouch, it is probable, that the number of souls on the island considerably exceeds that of the above statement

1844.
March.

From the opposite shore are continually brought over great quantities of all kinds of provisions and fruit, which are sold here at a very reasonable rate.

Abundance and great variety of excellent fish are caught in every direction round this island, which from the salubrity of its air, is justly esteemed the *Montpellier* of India.

Coups de soleil are seldom experienced in this settlement, although the Europeans walk and ride about at all times of the day, completely exposed to a vertical sun.

In short, as soon as the wet docks are established on *Pala araja*, (a small island between Penang and the Main), this will be the most beautiful, healthy, and flourishing settlement in the East Indies.

From the dawn of day, until the sun has emerged above the high mountains of *Queda*, and even for some time after this period, *Penang* rivals any thing that has been fabled of the *Elisium Fields*.

The dews which have fallen in the course of the night, and by remaining on the trees, shrubs, and flowers, have become impregnated with their odours, early in the morning begin to exhale, and fill the air with the most delightful perfumes, while the European inhabitants, taking advantage of this pleasant season for exercise, crowd the roads, (some in carriage, some on horseback, and others on foot) till the sun getting to some height above the mountains of *Queda*, becomes so powerful, as to drive them into their *bungalows*, to enjoy a good breakfast with a keen appetite.

The low lands of *Penang* being liable to inundation in the rainy season, the houses are all elevated from the ground, on stilts or timber on arches or pillars. They seldom consist of more than one story, are all built of wood, unatched, and with leaves of trees, the roofs resembling those of cottages in England, the eaves projecting over the verandahs, in order to throw off the rain into the areas.

" I 'd from one root a cypress tree below,
 " A curious vegetable seed is grow
 " In China, as the story goes, it ends,
 " O'er the sea, the land, the sea, the land
 " Stead'ly tell the story his ship deck out,
 " A thousand voices in quick vibration set
 " Scratch the pond, the tower, the heath,
 " O' pounce the lion as he treads the
 " O' the way, as the ship should be sent to the
 " With the sun's rays, the white drum "

THE MOUNTAIN.

805.

arch. A small party of us having obtained permission to occupy the *Concubescant Bungalow* on the mountain, for the purpose of breathing a cooler and purer air, we repaired thither early in March.

The distance from the town to that part of the base of the mountain where the path commences, is about five miles, and from thence to the summit, better than ten.

The path-way, which is not more than eight or ten feet wide, is cut with incredible labour, through a forest of immensely tall trees whose umbrellous foliage meeting above, exclude, except at some particular times, the least glimpse of the heavens, involving one, all the way up, in pervasive gloom.

It frequently winds along the banks of yawning and frightful precipices, at the bottoms of which one shall be to behold huge trunks of trees rived and fractured, while precipitating themselves down the craggy and steep descent.

The solemn stillness which reigns around, or is only interrupted at intervals by the harsh roar of the *trumpeter*, or distant roar of the waterfall tumbling from rock to rock, is well calculated to excite in the mind a melancholy, yet not unpleasant train of reflections.

Steep and rugged as this path is, the little Sumatran horses mount it with great safety—the ladies, however, are generally carried up in a kind of sedan chair, borne on the shoulders of some stout Malays.

After a tiresome ascent of two or three hours, we gained the summit; and were amply rewarded for our labour, by the most extensive and beautifully variegated prospect, we have ever seen in India.

As this part of the ridge of mountains is considerably the highest in the island, the view is consequently uninterrupted all around, and so strikingly grand and beautiful is it, that the most phlegmatic observer can hardly fail to experience some pleasing sensations, when placed in this fairy spot! for my own part I could not help resting my eyes for hours together with undiminished delight on the romantic scenery, which nature, assisted by art, had scattered around in boundless profusion.

The *pen* itself could but faintly depict the luxuriant magnificence of this extensive landscape; with the pen, therefore, I can only attempt to trace its outlines.

VIEWS FROM THE MOUNTAIN.

Looking eastward, the first attention is first arrested by the abrupt descent of the mountain itself, whose sides are clothed with an almost impenetrable forest of gigantic trees, except where pre-

cipices and chasms intervene, over which the waters are faintly heard tumbling and foaming in their course down to the plains.

From this rude scene of nature there is a sudden transition at the foot of the mountain, to one in which *art* has a considerable share.

The eye there ranges over a beautiful plain, laid out in pepper plantations, gardens, groves of the cocoa-nut, betel, areca, and various other trees, checkered throughout with handsome villas and bungalows, intersected by pleasant carriage-roads, and watered with meandering rills, that flow from the mountain's side, clear as the crystal.

Fort Cornwallis next presents itself, situated on the north-eastern point of the plain; and stretching to the southward, Tanjong Pinaique, or George-town, the *European* houses of which form a striking contrast with the variously constructed habitations of the *Oriental* settlers; all of whom dress and live according to the manners and customs of their respective countries.

Here may be seen standing in perfect *peace* and *amity* with each other, the *Hindoo temple* or *pagoda*; the *Chinese joss-house*; the *Christian chapel*, and various other places of worship; every one enjoying the *unmolested* exercise of his religion*.

From hence, the eye stretches over the beautiful *strait* that separates the island from the main; and whose glassy surface reflects the faint images of the clouds above, and lofty mountains that tower on each of its sides.

The long extended line of shipping in the roads, presents as great a variety and contrast, as the mansions on shore; from the *line of battle ship*, bearing "the *British thunder* o'er th' *obsequious wave*," down to the light *skiff* or *canoe*, that scarcely seems to brush its surface, may be seen in gradation—East India-men, country ships, grabs, Chinese junks, pariahs, Malay proas.

* "Father of all! in ev'ry age,
 "In ev'ry clime ador'd,
 "By *saint*, by *savage*, and by *sage*,
 "Jehovah, Jove, or Lord!
 "Thou great First Cause, least understood,
 "Who all our sense confin'd
 "To know, but this, that thou art good,
 "And that ourselves are blind!
 "Let not our weak unknowing hands
 "Presume thy bolts to throw,
 "And deal damnation round the lands
 "On each we judge thy foe!
 "To thee, whose temple is all space,
 "Whose altar, earth, sea, skies!
 "Our chorons let all beings raise,
 "All nature's incense use!"

UNIVERSAL PRAYER.

1805.
March.

and an endless variety of small craft from Sumatra, and the adjacent isles.

Passing over this pleasant little *aquatic scene*, the Malay coast exhibits a considerable plain covered with a close wood, through which winds a river, navigable by the country craft up to the bases of the lofty, and generally cloud-capt mountains of Queda, which terminate the eastern view.

NORTHERN AND SOUTHERN VIEWS.

The northern and southern prospects have a great similarity to each other. The eye each way pursues a line of coast, studded with small islands, and extended till the steep mountains on one hand, and the watery expanse on the other, blending with the blue ether, fade at length from the view, on the utmost verge of the horizon.

WESTERN VIEW.

Westward, an unmuffled sea and cloudless sky present a most magnificent scene, where the eye has ample scope to range far as the visual powers can possibly extend! distinguishing on this watery plain various kinds of vessels pursuing their respective routes, wafted by the gentle land and sea breezes, the latter of which, entitled the *Doctor*, setting in in the forenoon, pays an early and welcome visit to the mountain Bungalows, fraught with such delicious and life-inspiring draughts for the exhausted frame, as few doctors can boast of among their *prescriptions*, and which are far more grateful to the enfeebled tropical convalescent, than all the *cordial balm of Gilead*, and *salutiferous elixirs* in the world!

In so romantic a situation as this, and daily visited by such an agreeable physician, it is no wonder that the *debilitated* European should seldom fail to experience, at least a *temporary* renovation of strength, and exemption from the baleful effects of the climate.

Independent of the temperature of the air, which is pleasantly cool at this elevation, there is no doubt but that the beautiful prospects scattered around, must greatly conduce to the restoration of health. This we experienced, and proved the justness of the following remarks:

“Delightful scenes, whether in nature, painting, or poetry, have a kindly influence on the *body* as well as the *mind*; and not only seem to clear and brighten the *imagination*, but are able to disperse *grief* and *melancholy*, and to set the animal spirits in pleasing and agreeable motions.”

“Such are the prospects of an open *champaign country*; a vast uncultivated desert—huge *heaps of mountains*—high *rocks* and *precipices*—or a wide *expanse of waters*.”

Spectator, Nos. 411--412.

1805.

March.

Notwithstanding these advantages, through want of sufficient society, the scene in a few days began to assume a solitary appearance: during the solemn stillness that every evening prevailed around, the sun slowly sinking into the western horizon, seldom failed to awaken in the mind a variety of tender emotions, and fond recollections of that *dear native land*, over which his bright orb was then shining in meridian splendour*! accompanied too, with a kind of melancholy reflection, on the immense distance that separated us from the chalky cliffs of that *much-loved isle*, whose image becomes more deeply impressed on our memories, the farther we recede from its shores.

“ Where’er we roam, whatever realms to see,
 “ Our *hearts untravel’d*, fondly turn to thee!
 “ Still to *our country* turn, with ceaseless pain,
 “ And drag at each remove a lengthening chain.”

TEMPERATURE.

The thermometer at the Bungalows generally ranges from 70 to 80 degrees; sometimes at night, however, it stands as low as 62°; and indeed so cool did we feel it, that we generally slept with a blanket over us; a very rare occurrence within six degrees of the equator.

CURIOUS INSECT.

As soon as it gets dark on this mountain, there arises on every side, a singular concert of birds and insects, which deprived us of sleep for the first night or two. Far above the rest, the *trumpeter* (a very curious insect about an inch in length), saluted our ears regularly for a few hours after sun-set, with a sound so strong, that the first time I heard it, I actually thought a party of dragoons were approaching the Bungalows; nor could I be persuaded for some time, that such a diminutive creature could possibly possess organs capable of emitting such a tremendous loud note.

ANIMALS, BIRDS, &c.

Deer of a very curious species are sometimes, though rarely, found in the woods of this island; but lions, tigers, and other ferocious animals, are unknown. A tiger did once swim across from the Queda shore, and made for the mountains here, but was shot soon after his landing; he was supposed to be the only one that ever was on the island. Birds of the most beautiful plumage are seen on almost every branch of a tree through this island; but nature has been so very bountiful in clothing them with her most *gaudy liveries*, that she has thought proper to

* Pulo Penang being one hundred degrees east of England, it is sun-set in the former, and mid-day in the latter place, at the same time.

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March.

make a *draw back*, by depriving them of those *melodious notes*, which so often charm us in birds of a more *homely exterior*.

There is, however, one small bird on this island (whose name I forget), which perches among the leaves of the tall *acca* tree, and sings mornings and evenings, in a style far superior to that of any bird I have seen between the tropics.

The argus pheasant is found on this island, but they are generally brought over dried from the Malay coast, where they abound in great plenty, and are here sold for a dollar each.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.

With respect to the domestic animals, they are but few; and those brought from the neighbouring parts: horses from Pedir, on the coast of Sumatra, buffaloes from Queda; and sheep, &c. from Bengal.

CURIOUS MANNER OF SWIMMING BUFFALOES

The buffaloes are brought over from the opposite coast, in a very curious manner; six or eight of them being collected together on the beach, thongs of leather, or pieces of ratan, are passed in at one nostril and out at the other, then made fast to the sides and stern of one of the boats, which is pushed off from the shore, and the buffaloes driven into the water along with it; these thongs or ratans keeping their noses above water, and assisting them in swimming, until they gain the opposite shore, unless seized on their passage by the alligator.

The buffalo often becomes a most dangerous animal when enraged by the heat of the sun, or any other cause, and seems then to imitate the frantic tragedy, which its savage master (the Malay) occasionally performs, when "*running the muck*." At these periods, the animal rushes furiously upon every thing in its way, and dashes into the houses, upsetting all, & breaking through all obstructions; as it is possessed of great muscular strength, and runs about with impetuous velocity, there is no mode of subduing it, but by killing the animal with spears or shot.

A large one lately made a desperate sally through Georgetown, while the gentlemen of the settlement fired on him in

* *Running a muck*, is a practice that has prevailed time immemorial among the Malays — to *run a muck*, in the original sense of the word, is to get intoxicated with opium or haugue, (juice of the betel, which has an intoxicating quality), and then rush into the streets, with a drawn weapon, and kill every one that comes in the way, till the party is himself either killed, or taken prisoner. If the officer takes one of these *anacks* or *muckals*, (as they have been called by an early corruption) alive, he has a considerable reward, and the unhappy wretches are always broken alive on the wheel; but such is the fury of their desperation, that three out of four are necessarily destroyed in attempting to secure them.

all directions, from their verendahs; at length he rushed through the governor's kitchen, upsetting the cook and all his utensils; but what was still worse, a ball from a rifle, aimed at the furious buffalo, unfortunately struck the poor harmless cook; and between the fright occasioned by the animal, and the idea of being shot to boot, he very nearly died.

1805.

March.

As these creatures have very little hair on their bodies; they are utterly unable to bear the scorching rays of the sun towards mid-day: at these times, therefore, they betake themselves to every pool and puddle in the neighbourhood, rolling themselves in the mud, and then lying with their nostrils just above water, until the fervency of the atmosphere has somewhat abated. On coming out from their cool retreats, they are the most uncouth and disgusting objects imaginable, having a coat of clay an inch or two in thickness, which in a few minutes is hardened by the sun into a crust that defends their hides from his powerful rays during the remainder of the day.

They are the only animals used in labour; their flesh is tolerably good, and an excrescence that grows on the top of their shoulders called a hump, when salted and well preserved, (especially in Bengal,) is esteemed excellent eating; in short, it is the most useful animal in India.

DESTRUCTIVE ANIMALS.

Alligators are very common round the shores of this island, rendering it very unsafe to bathe on any part of the coast. Snakes of an immense size have likewise been found here by the early settlers, but are now very rare. Bandicotes (a species of large rat,) are extremely numerous on the island, and do a great deal of mischief, as does likewise the *white ant*. It is astonishing what effect these very small insects are capable of producing! they will destroy the *interior parts* of the beams and rafters in houses; leaving a thin *external shell* of sound wood, that completely deceives the eye, and lulls into a false security the unsuspecting lodger, who frequently sees, with astonishment the whole fabric come tumbling to the ground without any apparent cause, or perhaps, is himself involved in its ruins!

WHITE ANTS DANGEROUS IN SHIPS.

When these dangerous insects find their way on board of ships, it becomes a very serious concern; as no one can tell where they may be making their destructive burrows, perhaps through the thin plank that separates the whole crew from eternity!

In these cases there is no method of destroying them, but by sinking the vessel in shallow water for some days, until they are all drowned.

1805.

TREES AND SHRUBS.

March.

The principal useful trees, shrubs, and plants on this island, are those that bear the cocoa-nut, areca-nut, pepper, and betel.

COCOA-NUT TREE.

The cocoa-nut tree is raised by burying the nut (stript of its fibrous root,) at some depth in the ground, and it is very singular that the stem is nearly as thick when it makes its appearance above ground, as it ever becomes afterwards, though it sometimes rises to the height of fifty or sixty feet.

The cocoa nut milk forms a most delicious and a *holisome* beverage in the hot weather, and so does the toddy, which is this milk or juice *fermented*.

Plantations of these trees are very valuable, as they will rent at a dollar a tree per annum, as long as they continue to bear fruit. The fibres round the nut are the most valuable parts, of which they make the *koura cable*, and *rope*, so much used in all the country ships.

THE ARECA-NUT TREE

The Areca tree makes a very handsome appearance, its branches are small, but its leaves are very beautiful forming a round tuft at the top of the trunk, which grows as straight as an arrow to the height of twenty-five or thirty feet.

The shell which contains the fruit is about the size of a walnut, and of a yellowish red colour outside, and rough within, when ripe it is astringent, and not unpleasant to the taste.

It is needless to say how much this nut (when mixed with leaves of the betel and chinam,) is used in chewing by all classes of the natives. This composition is called *pinang*, (which is the name of the island,) and though it has an agreeable flavour, it gives the mouths of the natives who use it a most diabolical appearance, rendering what few straggling teeth they have as black as jet, while their disfigured lips seem as grey, as if they had been mangleing a piece of raw flesh.*

*“ *Then spit out the first piece, and I think such a precaution is very proper, for otherwise the calu (chinam) which is mixed with it, would excruciate the tongue and palate. It is also to be observed, that if the betel and areca, not cut the calu, be chewed, the juice pressed from it by mastication is of a green colour. But upon adding a small quantity of calu, the same juice becomes redder than blood.*”

Garcias ab Orta, paragraph 3d

“I hold this *masticatory* is greatly preferable to *tabacco*. However, a long continued use of it, not only erodes the teeth by the calu it contains, but it also causes them to fall out. Besides, when the tassel nut or the fruit

PEPPER PLANT.

The pepper plant is a shrub whose root is small, fibrous, and flexible, it rises into a stem which requires a tree or prop to support it; its wood has the same sort of knots as the vine, and when dry it exactly resembles the vine branch.

The leaves, which have a strong smell and pungent taste, are of an oval shape, but they diminish towards the extremity, and end in a point. From the flower buds, which are white, and sometimes placed in the middle, sometimes at the extremities of the branches, are produced small berries resembling those of the currant tree; each of these contain from twenty to thirty corns of pepper: they are commonly gathered in October, and exposed to the sun seven or eight days. The fruit, which was green at first, and afterwards red, when stripped of its covering, assumes the appearance it has when we see it: it is not sown, but planted; a great nicety is required in the choice of the shoots: it produces no fruit till the end of three years, but bears so plentifully the three succeeding years, that some plants yield six or seven pounds of pepper in that period. The bark then begins to shrink, and in twelve years time it ceases bearing.

“The culture of pepper is not difficult; it is sufficient to plant it in a rich soil, and carefully to pull up the weeds that grow in great abundance round its roots, especially the three first years. As the sun is highly necessary to the growth of the pepper plant, when it is ready to bear, the trees that support it must be lopped, to prevent their shade from injuring the fruit.”

(Marsden's Hist. of Sumatra)

BETEL.

The betel is a species of this genus. It is a climbing and creeping plant like the ivy; and its leaves a good deal resemble those of the Citron; though they are longer and narrower at the extremity. It grows in all parts of India, but thrives best in moist places: the natives cultivate it as we do the vine, placing props for it to run and climb upon; and it is a common practice to plant it against the tree that bears the *Arēca-nut*.

FRUITS.

Fruits are plentiful on this beautiful island; the *pine-apple* grows wild, while *shaddocks*, *plantains*, *jack-fruit*, *oranges*, *lemons*, &c. are reared with the greatest ease.

of the *pyñang* is not ripe, it quickly induces a giddiness of the head. This symptom indeed vanishes on eating a little salt, or taking a draught of cold water: I would then admit a moderate use of it as a dentrifice, and sweetener of the breath; but condemn the abuse of it as much as of tobacco: for in my opinion it is the height of madness to use as *aliment*, a substance which has the efficacy of a violent medicine.”

Bontius, page 192.

1805.
March

1805. In the botanical garden may be seen the *cinnamon*, *bread-fruit*,
 March. and a great variety of curious and useful trees.

WATER.

Hitherto there was considerable difficulty in watering ships at this island, as the boats were obliged to go to some distance from the town to fill the casks, and that too on a beach so shelving, that they were forced to roll down the casks into the water, and *parbuckle* them into the boats, with incredible fatigue.

There is now, however, a conduit formed, which leads the water from the foot of the mountain down to the town, and even to the extremity of a wharf, which projects upwards of one hundred and fifty yards into the sea, and where boats may lie and have their casks filled by a hose, that leads from a cock on the wharf into the bung-holes of the casks.

This water too, is of an excellent quality; as it comes directly from the waterfall, without passing through any fens or marshes, whereby it might be injured: this is a work of very great public utility, as the principal object of this settlement is the supplying our *China* fleets with *wood* and *water*.

TRADE.

Though Prince of Wales's island exports very little of its own productions, except pepper and wood, yet there is a very considerable trade carried on here, from its being in a central situation between India, China, and the eastern islands.

The merchants take advantage of the fleets passing and re-passing, to export to China, &c. opium, betel, pepper, tin, rattans, and various other articles which they have ready collected; and for which they receive either dollars, or the productions of China and the eastern isles, which they afterwards ship off to India, or send home to Europe, which ever they may find most advantageous.

LAW.

Hitherto this flourishing little settlement has contrived to subsist without *law*; excepting that particular branch of it, denominated *club-law*! and yet I believe upon the whole the *scales of justice* have hung as much in equilibrio here, as in many larger communities, "where *laws and lawyers* grow as thick as *hops*!"

Whether the new order of things about to take place on this island, will produce any vibration in the balance of justice, remains to be proved. But as I have nothing to do with politics, and as I am on the point of taking a reluctant farewell of this beautiful island, I must just mention the English settlers: though I can say little more of them than of those in Calcutta, Madras,

&c every unprejudiced person must confess, that they are hospitable and friendly to strangers, and have shewn great marks of kindness and attention to the officers of the navy in particular.

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Could I indulge my own feelings, I would here return my sincere thanks to *many of* the gentlemen of this little settlement, whose kind offices solaced many others, as well as myself, while recovering from severe illness, but as I cannot mention names, I shall wave the subject, by wishing the *whole settlement* every *prosperity and happiness* they can desire!

PASSAGE TO MADRAS.

Embarked on board H. M. ship R — for a passage to Ma- *April 1,*
dras, and bade adieu to the pleasantest settlement in India, *Prince*
of Wales's island.

As this was the period at which the north-east monsoon shifts to that of the south-west, we consequently had very disagreeable and unsettled weather, especially among the Nicobar islands; where we experienced nothing but a succession of heavy squalls, calms, deluges of rain, and not infrequently tremendous *thunder storms*. One night in particular, the thunder seemed to rend the very heavens! the claps bursting close over our heads, and the lightning flying around us in apparent balls of fire, so as to excite considerable anxiety, lest some of them should be attracted by the great quantity of iron work in so large a ship. He, however, who

“Rides on the whirlwind, and directs the storm,”

led us safe through this awful specimen of his works!

Thomson has painted one of those scenes so immitably, that I cannot help transcribing a part of it.

“At first heard solemn o’er the verge of heav’n,
“The tempest growls, but as it nearer comes,
“And rolls its awful burden on the winds,
“The lightnings flash a larger curve, and more
“The noise astounds, till overheard a sheet
“Of livid flame discloses ~~some~~, then shuts,
“And opens wider ~~huts~~ and opens still,
“Expansive, wringing ether in a blaze.
“Follows the loosen’d acgraved ton,
“In ~~thunder~~, deepening, mingling peal on peal,
“Crash! a horrible! convulsing heaven and earth!”

After a tedious passage we arrived in Madras roads on the
twenty-first of April.

21.

SUGGESTIONS AT MADRAS.

Among the various novel objects that occupy the attention of a stranger for some time after arriving in this country, I must not

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pass over the celebrated *jugglers* of India, of whom those at Madras are said to be the most expert.

It would be impossible to enumerate the various tricks which they perform with snakes, balls, cups, &c.

The great flexibility of their joints and muscles—their sober manner of living, and their unwearied application in the attainment of perfection in their art, render them much superior in my opinion, to the Europeans in many of their legerdemain deceptions and tricks.

I shall pass over these, however, to mention one where there is *no deception*; but which is nevertheless one of their *chef d'œuvres*—I mean

SWALLOWING THE SWORD.

This story carries such an air of improbability on its forehead, that, though I saw, and ascertained it to be a fact, yet I should be very shy in relating the same in England, lest I should be ranked among those, who having *doubled the Cape*, take of course the liberty to *embellish* their narrations with a few “agreeable deviations from truth*.”

I have no fear, however, that the *intelligent* reader will doubt the truth of the statement, when the particulars are related.

This sword has some resemblance to a common spit in shape, except at the handle, which is merely a part of the blade itself, rounded and elongated into a little rod. It is from twenty-two to twenty-six inches in length, about an inch in breadth, and about one-fifth of an inch in thickness; the edges and point are blunt, being rounded, and of the same thickness as the rest of the blade. It is of iron or steel, smooth, and a little bright.

Having been visited one day by one of these *Conjurors*, I resolved to see clearly his mode of performing this operation; and for that purpose ordered him to seat himself on the floor of the verendah, and having satisfied myself with respect to the sword, by attempting to bend it, and by striking it against a stone, I firmly grasped it by the handle, and ordered him to proceed.

He first took out a small phial of oil, and with one of his fingers rubbed a little of it ~~over~~ the surface of the instrument; then stretching up his neck as much as possible, and bending himself a little backwards, he introduced the point of it into his mouth, and pushed it gently down his throat, until my hand, which was on the handle, came in contact with his lips!

* “The *jugglers* or slight-of-hand men greatly excel whatever I have seen or heard of them in Europe: their tricks and deceptions in short are so amazing, that I confess I have not the courage to relate what I myself have been eye witness to, or been credibly informed: for fear of being taxed with running into that marvellous, of which travellers are so fond.”

He then made a sign with one of his hands, for me to feel the point of the instrument, between his breast and navel, which I could plainly do, by bending him a little more backwards, and pressing my fingers on his stomach, he being a very thin and lean fellow.

On letting go the handle of the sword, he instantly fixed on it a little machine that spun round, and disengaged a small fire-work, which, encircling his head with a blue flame, gave him as he then sat, a truly diabolical appearance!

On withdrawing the instrument, several parts of its surface were covered with blood, which shewed that he was still obliged to use a degree of violence in the introduction.

I was at first a good deal surprised at this transaction altogether; but when I came to reflect a little upon it, there appeared nothing at all *improbable*, much less *impossible*, in the business. He told me, on giving him a trifle, that he had been accustomed from his early years to introduce at first *small elastic instruments* down his throat and into his stomach; that by degrees he had used larger and larger ones, until at length he was able to use the present iron sword.

As I mentioned before, the great flexibility of their joints and muscles,—the laxness of their fibres, and their temperate mode of life, render them capable of having considerable violence done to the fleshy parts of their bodies, without any danger of the *inflammation*, and other bad effects, which would be produced in the irritable bodies of Europeans. Witness their being whirled round on the point of a pole, suspended by a hook thrust into the fleshy part of their backs, without experiencing any fatal consequences.

There is, therefore, no great wonder, if by long habit, and stretching up their necks, they are able to bring the different windings of the passage from the mouth to the stomach into a straight line, or nearly so; and thereby slide down the sword into the latter organ without much difficulty.

They exhibit innumerable tricks with snakes, which they have perfectly tame, and pretend to charm by their music;—but they take care to have the poison-bags cut out from their jaws, although they pretend to the contrary.

SERPENTS.

From a number of ingenious and useful experiments made on the poison of serpents, by Mr. William Boag, surgeon on the Bombay establishment, I cannot help extracting the following curious particulars, which must gratify the curiosity of every reader.

Mr. B. begins by observing, “that by far the greatest number

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of serpents are *not* venomous. Gmelin describes 219 different kinds of snakes, of which Linnæus informs us, that only about one in ten are poisonous. We likewise know that many snakes are not poisonous to man, though they may be destructive to lesser animals.

“It would be a desirable thing to be able to ascertain, from the appearance of a snake, whether it be poisonous or not, but these animals so nearly resemble one another, that it is impossible, without great experience, to distinguish them. The skin on the belly and tail of serpents is composed of scales, which vary in number and arrangement, in different serpents, and the colour, which is most attended to, is a very fallacious mark, for it commonly changes with age. A serpent with a large head is generally suspected to be venomous, but the mark which is chiefly to be depended on, is the *large canine teeth* or fangs, fixed in the upper jaw, which are commonly two in number, but sometimes more. These teeth are covered with a membranous sheath, and are crooked, movable, and hollow, to give passage to the venom, which they receive from a small reservoir, that runs along the palate of the mouth, and passes through the body of each fang. This reservoir contains but a small quantity of venom, which is forced out of it when the animal attempts to bite, by a strong muscle, fixed on the upper jaw for that purpose. It has been well observed by Linnæus, that if nature has thrown them naked on the ground, destitute of limbs, and exposed to every misery, she has in return supplied them with a deadly poison, the most terrible of all weapons!

SYMPTOMS OF THE BITE

“The symptoms which arise from the bite of a serpent, are commonly pain, swelling, and redness in the part bitten, great faintness with sickness of stomach, and sometimes vomiting succeeds. The breathing becomes short and laborious, the pulse low, quick, and interrupted. The wound, which was at first red, becomes livid, black, and gangrenous, the skin of the wounded limb, and sometimes of the whole body, takes a yellow hue. Cold sweats and convulsions ensue, and the patient sinks, sometimes in a few hours, but commonly at the end of two, three, or four days.

“This is the usual progress when the disease terminates fatally, but happily the patient will *most commonly recover*, a reflection which should moderate the fears of those who happen to be bitten by one, and which at any rate, should, as much as possible, be resisted. A violent degree of passion or fear will in all cases assist the operation of the poison.

With respect to the manner in which the poison acts upon

the human body, it must be allowed, that this is a very interesting question; a great variety of opinions have arisen, and hardly any subject is less understood.

“Late physicians, supported by the respectable authority of Dr. Mead, observing how suddenly death ensues after the bite, have concluded that the venom must act through the medium of the nerves only.

“But the celebrated Fontana has combated this doctrine, by demonstrating, from a variety of experiments on different animals, that the venom of the viper is perfectly innocent, when applied to the nerves only; that it produces in them no sensible change, and that they are incapable of conveying the poison to the animal. On the other hand, he has shewn distinctly, that it acts immediately upon the blood; and through the medium of this fluid, it destroys the irritability of the muscular fibres, and produces death.”

After some observations on the nature of the blood and atmospheric air, Mr. B. advances a conjecture, that the poison of serpents acts upon the blood, by attracting the oxygen, which it receives from the air in its passage through the lungs, and upon which its vitality depends.

In support of this opinion he adduces the following arguments:—“1st. Man and other warm-blooded animals, exposed to an atmospheric air deprived of oxygen, quickly expire. The poison of a serpent, when introduced into the blood, also causes death; but carried into the circulation by a wound, and in very small quantity, its operation is comparatively slow.

2d.—“The appearances on dissection, in both cases, are very similar; the blood becomes of a darker hue, and coagulates about the heart and larger vessels; the irritability of the fibres are destroyed in both cases, and the body has a strong tendency to putrefaction.”

Mr. B. observes, that the venom of serpents has a much greater effect on warm, than cold-blooded animals: the reason of which he supposes to be this: “that cold-blooded animals do not require so large a proportion of oxygen, to preserve them in health, as warm-blooded animals do.”

After enumerating the variety of opinions, and various remedies in use among the older physicians, he proceeds to take notice of the modern remedies; and first of the *volatile alkali*.

“This is the remedy most commonly used by physicians both here and in Europe. But the belief which formerly prevailed, that it possessed some specific power, which corrected the poison, seems now exploded. It seems to have no other effect than that of being a stimulus.”

METHOD OF CURE.

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"A ligature should as soon as possible be tied above the bitten part, so as to impede, but not entirely to stop the circulation of the blood; for the bite of a serpent is for the most part superficial, and the poison is carried into the circulation by the smaller vessels on the surface. The wound should next be scarified and washed with a solution of *lunar caustic*, in water. I would prefer for this purpose a weak solution; as it may be used more freely, and frequently repeated: the same medicine should likewise be given internally, and repeated at intervals, as circumstances may point out.

"I know, from experience, that half a grain of lunar caustic, dissolved in two ounces of water, may be taken two or three times a day, and its use be persisted in for several days with safety. To these means might be added (if the symptoms are not relieved), a warm bath, acidulated with nitrous acid. In this bath, which should be made sufficiently strong to produce a very sensible irritation on the skin, the wounded limb, and a great part of the body, might be placed for half an hour, and repeated as circumstances might direct."

EXPERIMENTS.

"Having procured a snake, a large *Cobra de Capello*, with the venomous teeth and poison bag entire, the following experiments were made:

"*Ex. 1.* The snake was made to bite a young dog in the hind leg, and for which no medicine, either internal or external, was made use of. The dog upon being bit howled violently for a few minutes; the wounded limb soon became paralytic; in ten minutes the dog lay senseless and convulsed; in thirteen minutes he was dead.

"*Ex. 2.* A dog of a smaller size and younger was bitten in the hind leg, when he was instantly plunged into the warm nitre bath, prepared on purpose. The wound was scarified and washed with the solution of *lunar caustic*; while some of it was poured down his throat. The dog died in the same time, and with the same symptoms, as the former.

"*Ex. 3.* After an interval of one day, the same snake was made to bite a young puppy in the hind leg; but above the part bitten a ligature was previously tied: the wound was scarified, &c. as in the other. The dog did not seem to feel any other injury than that arising from the ligature round his leg: half an hour after being bitten, the ligature dressing, &c. were removed. The dog soon began to sink; breathed quick, got convulsed, and died."

" *Ex. 4 & 5.* Two other dogs were bitten; and the wounds simply scarified, and dressed with the lunar caustic; they continued well for two hours; but died in the course of the day.

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" *Ex. 6.* A dog being bitten by the snake, the wound was washed with volatile alkali; and the same medicine given internally, diluted with water, and repeated at intervals. This dog was shortly after convulsed and died in three hours. Another with the same means used, died in eighteen minutes.

" *Ex. 12.* A young puppy was bitten in the ear, and exactly *half a minute afterwards* the ear was cut off. The wound bled freely; the dog continued well for half an hour, then drooped, and in half an hour more died.

" These experiments will, perhaps, serve little other purpose than to prove the quick and destructive operations of the poison of this kind of serpents, and of the inefficacy of the most celebrated remedies, which have hitherto been discovered.

" It is certain however, that, upon larger animals the progress would have been neither so rapid nor destructive; and upon the human body it is also probable, that the remedies might have had greater success."

The eau de luce has *lately* been found to have the very best effects in bites of serpents on the human body.

REMARKS ON SLEEPING IN THE OPEN AIR.

Europeans in general, on their first arrival in India, are prepossessed with the idea, that sleeping *at night* in the open air must be a very dangerous practice; in the course of a short residence on shore indeed, they get rid of this prejudice, by observing most of the *Natives*, and many of the *Europeans*, sleeping in open terraces and verendahs, not only with impunity, but as a preservative against the debilitating effects of a hot climate*. But on board ships, where they have not an opportunity of seeing or reflecting on these circumstances, they frequently adhere

* " Though all excesses of increase and decrease of stimulus should be avoided, yet a certain variation of stimulus seems to prolong the excitability of the system; thus, those who are uniformly habituated to much artificial heat, as in warm parlours in the winter months, lose their irritability in some degree, and become feeble like hot-house plants; but by frequently going for a time into the cold air, the sensorial power of irritability is accumulated, and they become stronger.

" Whence it may be deduced, that the variations of the cold and heat of this climate (England) contribute to strengthen its inhabitants, who are more active and vigorous than those of either much warmer or much colder climates."

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(for a considerable time after their arrival on the station) to the established regulations, of making every man sleep in his proper berth, and suffering none to lie about the decks; a system in my opinion very prejudicial to the health of ships' companies in *India*.

At sea indeed, it is not of so much consequence, where the watch on deck always gives sufficient room to those below; but it is in harbours and roadsteads, where the air is much hotter than at sea, that the impolicy of the measure becomes manifest.

ILLUSTRATION.

I think the following comparison will set this circumstance in a clear point of view, and will be found tolerably correct.

We will suppose, that there are two frigates lying at anchor in Madras roads; in one of which, the regulations above-mentioned are strictly adhered to, viz. the *Master at Arms* has particular orders, "*to see, that every man be in his hammock by nine o'clock, and that none be permitted, on any pretence whatever, to lie about the decks afterwards.*"

We will likewise suppose, that every man, when he *turns into his hammock*, falls fast asleep in a few minutes, which (by the bye) is not always the case: about eleven o'clock, however, I will venture to say he awakes in a deluge of perspiration, and panting with the heat, and rarefied air; upon which he turns out and goes upon deck, for the purpose (as he terms it) of getting a *mouthful* of fresh air; apostrophizing, as he ascends, the infernal heat of the climate!

Under pretence of going to the head, he gets upon the fore-castle, when the cool breeze from the shore immediately chills him, and gives a sudden check to his perspiration; after taking a few turns here, he is compelled (though with much reluctance,) to repair once more to his hammock, from whence he makes, perhaps, two or three more excursions in the course of the night.

Next morning when *landings* are turned up, instead of being invigorated and refreshed by a good sleep, he feels himself languid and enervated.

If we take a view of the *tout-ensemble* on a muster-day, we will observe, that this ship's company have a pallid, debilitated appearance, compared with the generality of sailors; and of course, that they are highly *obnoxious* to the prevailing diseases of the climate. It is needless to remark, that the *sick-list* in this ship will be always crowded, and that a great proportion of her complement will be occasionally at the *hospital*.

Let us now revert to the *other frigate*; where, although the orders and regulations above alluded to, *still exist*, yet from pun-

dential motives, the *non-observance* of them is winked at by the officers.

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If we take a ramble round the decks between nine and ten o'clock at night, we will first remark, that, contrary to the practice in many ships, the *Awnings* are here allowed to remain *unfurled*, fore and aft, during the night; that circular holes are cut in them opposite all the hatchways, in order that the *wind-soils* may ascend to a considerable height through those apertures, and consequently be capable of throwing down a great body of cool air into the 'tween decks.

We can plainly perceive, that great attention is paid to these most useful *ventilators*; and that the *quarter-masters* have strict orders to keep them constantly *trimmed to the breeze*.

If we now look around us, we see the fore-castle, booms, waist-nettings, and after-part of the quarter-deck, strewed with sailors and marmes, in the ordinary dresses which they wore during the day; and if we can form a conclusion from "the droning music of the vocal nose," we may safely pronounce them fast locked in the arms of Morpheus.

In this state they remain during the night, very few of them awaking till the boatswain's pipe rouses all hands, to duty at daylight.

On getting up, they feel themselves, not only well *refreshed* by a sound night's sleep, but highly *invigorated*; and their *nerves* so *braced* by the cool *night air*, that they are rendered able to go through the duty of the day with *alacrity*, though beneath a meridian sun.

The general appearance of *this ship's company*, when mustered, is very different from that of the other. Here, instead of the *Hippocratic countenance*, the men appear with complexions approximating to those of the *native Hindoos*! In short, they look stout and healthy, and the complement is seldom weakened by a long sick-list or discharges to an hospital.

Upon the whole, from my own experience, and that of others who have been long on the station, I am convinced it would be a wise and salutary regulation, to keep *the awnings spread during the night*, and allow *the men to sleep in the open air*, especially in harbour, and in hot weather.

REFLECTIONS.

Every indulgence compatible with the service and good discipline, should be liberally granted to the British seaman serving in India; where he is not only cut off, as it were, from all intercourse with his friends and relatives; but from the nature of the climate, and his own thoughtless character. He is necessarily deprived of that much-prized indulgence—"liberty to go on

shore." And here let me most sincerely bewail the cause (whatever it may be), that can induce government to keep ships such a length of time, on the East India station, before they are relieved! The prevailing idea, that men, by remaining a long time in India, become, as it were, seasoned to the climate, and thereby better able to bear its effects, is in my opinion erroneous. It is true, that most Europeans on their first arrival here, as well as in other hot countries, experience a slight fit of illness, after which they probably enjoy good health for three or four years: this slight illness at first, and not length of time in the country, is the true seasoning: for after the period above-mentioned, we may in general expect, that the constitution is giving way before the effects of the climate; though it may not at that time be perceived.

But when any serious illness takes place, the effects of debility are easily seen. Medicines do not act in the same manner on them, as on people whose constitutions are not impaired by the climate, and the foundations of chronic diseases are laid by every subsequent attack.

Add to this, the gloom and despondency which pervade the minds of men, whose prospects of returning to their native country are remote and uncertain.

This last circumstance is found to be singularly unfavourable to the enjoyment of health in this country; people of *melancholy* or *timid* dispositions generally falling *victims* to the climate first.

One would think that all these inconveniences might be easily obviated, by sending out a man of war with each convoy of Indiamen, to relieve the oldest ship on the station; which ship might return with the homeward-bound Indiamen: thus affording protection to our commerce, and relief to each ship in her turn.

Our seamen would then have the certain and cheering prospect of returning to their friends in rotation; while hope and the fond anticipation of this event, uniting to beguile the tedious hours, their time would roll imperceptibly away.

I should not have enlarged on this subjects so much, were I not of opinion that the page, containing an observation that may ultimately tend to preserve the life, or even health, of a *British Seaman*, is perhaps of more real value, than a volume of some of the literary productions which daily issue from the press.

SITUATION OF OFFICERS,—AND THEIR BATTA.

I had almost forgot to mention the situation of the officers, who equally, nay, I believe, *more exposed* to the influence of the

climate than the men, have likewise to encounter a number of pecuniary embarrassments, which are particularly distressing on so remote a station as this, where hardly any prize-money is made.

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There is indeed an allowance of table-money by the East-India Company, called *batta*, in the following proportions, viz. Post-Captains, 500*l.* per. ann.; Masters and Commanders, 250*l.* ditto; Ward-Room Officers, 24*l.* each, ditto. What a falling off is here! The midshipmen and warrant-officers are not allowed any thing; ---but a proportion of tea and sugar is served to the men, sufficient for breakfast.

Now every officer who draws pay to the amount of 100*l.* per annum, by being obliged to take the pagodas at 9*s.* 6*d.* or 10*s.* (the intrinsic value of which is only 8*s.*) thus loses 20 or 25 per cent. on his pay; which absorbs the whole of his *batta*! He cannot go ashore on either duty or pleasure, without hiring a palan-keen, which subjects him to an expence considerably exceeding that day's pay. Add to this, the great price of every European article, completely counterbalancing the cheapness of the Indian.

In short, the officers (below captains) on the India station, are extremely ill off; and something should certainly be done to enable them to draw their pay without such an enormous discount on their bills.

CLIMATE.

It is somewhat singular, that at Madras, and on the Coromandel coast in general, there are hardly any other diseases but those of the liver; while at Bengal, that disorder is not so frequent; but there are several others which make up for this deficiency.

It has been supposed that the dry sandy soil of the Coromandel coast tends, by reflecting the heat of the sun, to produce liver complaints; while the low marshy grounds of Bengal, on the other hand, are more favourable to the production of fevers, &c.

Madras does not experience the *little winter* which Bengal does in December and January; but it is more refreshed by sea breezes, than the latter place can possibly be, on account of its inland situation.

It has been a question, who are best adapted to stand the effects of this climate; the gross, the lean, the sprightly, or the serious? If I can trust to my own observations, I would say the gross and sprightly: as I have generally seen the moping, melancholy, lean, and irritable people, the first to be affected with sickness.

ward, and finishes with that of Divi, projecting from an isle formed by the river; this, with another point about fifty miles distant, makes a fine semilunar bay, a tract now divided between Condapilly and Ellore.

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Almost immediately within point Divi, lies Masulipatam, in lat. $16^{\circ} 8' N$. The coast is low, the bottom oozy, and the tide rises about four feet. It was anciently an emporium, famous for its commerce; being happy in a harbour capable of receiving ships of considerable burden, and the only one from Cape Comorin to this place capable of receiving ships of three hundred tons.

"Its trade is chintz and painted cloth, i. e. calicoes: its dyes are famous all over India, produced from a plant called *shahi*, growing on the grounds overflowed by the spring tides. It is also famed all over India for its snuff of the most excellent flavour.—The Coast and Bay ships touch here for cloths, &c. annually."—Vide *Pennant's Views*, Vol. II. p. 116.

CORINGA.

This little settlement, originally French, is situated on the banks of the Godavery, and is a place of very little note. The country here is so low, that an inundation took place from the sea some twenty years ago, which destroyed upwards of ten thousand of the inhabitants. This place is likely to become of considerable importance, as a wet dock has been formed on the bank of the river, capable of taking in our largest frigates; and is the only construction of the kind between Bombay and Bengal. A bar of mud, however, lies across the entrance of the river, through which vessels are obliged to be dragged with immense force.

The Albatross brig and Wilhelmina frigate have already passed this muddy barrier; and it is believed that this obstruction is capable of being removed.

Coringa bay is the only smooth water on the Coromandel coast in the S. W. monsoon; point Godavere projecting out to the southward, and breaking off the long swell. From this bay we had a distant view of the famous mountains of Golconda, so celebrated for their diamond mines.

The bended twigs take root, and daughters grow
About the mother tree, a pillar'd shade
High over-arch'd, and echoing walks between;
There oft the Indian herdsman, shunning heat,
Shelters in cool, and tends his pasturing herds
At loop-holes cut thro' thickest shade."

PARADISE LOST, Book IX. verse 1100.

GOLCONDA MINES.

The following account of the mode of obtaining these precious commodities, will not perhaps be unentertaining.

Tavernier thus describes the process of searching for the diamonds:—"After the miners have pitched upon the place where they intend to work, they level another place close by of the same extent, or a little bigger, which they inclose with a wall about two feet high; at the bottom of that little wall, at the distance of every two feet, they make small holes to let in the water, which they stop up afterwards till they come to drain out the water again; this done, their labours are preceded by acts of devotion and a very simple feast.

"When that is over, the men fall to digging, the women and children to carry the earth to the place prepared in that manner I have already described. They dig ten, twelve, and sometimes fourteen feet deep; but when they come to any water they leave off.

"All the earth being carried into the place before mentioned, the men, women, and children, with pitchers, throw the water which is in the drains upon the earth, letting it soak for two or three days, according to the hardness of it, till it come to be a kind of batter; then they open the holes in the wall to let out the water, and throw on more water till all the mud is washed away, and nothing left but the sand; after that they dry it in the sun, and then they winnow the sand in little winnows, as we winnow our corn: the small dust flies away, the great remains, which they pour out again upon the ground.

"The earth being thus winnowed, they spread it with a kind of rake as thin as they possibly can; then with a wooden instrument, like a pavior's rammer, about half a foot wide at the bottom, they pound the earth from one end to the other two or three times over. After that they winnow it again, and then spreading it at one end of the van, for fear of losing any of the earth, they look for the diamonds."—Part III. page 138.

VIZAGAPATAM.

Vizagapatam is situated between Massulapatam and Gangam. On the southern side of the little river, that opens into the sea at this place, is the *Dolphin's Nose*, a steep hill, on which there is a small fort. The surrounding country is mountainous, and assumes a singular wildness in its features: many of the hills are entirely destitute of vegetation, and are the haunts of jackals, great numbers of which we saw when up the country shooting. At night their cries are frightful, as they go in droves, and in full cry when in pursuit of their prey. This part of the country is

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likewise much frequented by tigers and other wild beasts. The town is very inconsiderable, the Europeans generally residing at *Voltaire*, a small village to the north of Vizagapatam.

The natives, besides their cloths, are very expert in their ivory works, imitating with some success the Chinese in making curious little boxes and work-baskets of ivory and bone, which are bought by the Europeans to take home as presents.

The *surf* is here very considerable on the *ebb tide*.

JAGRENAUT PAGODA.

Between Gangam and Point Palmiras, built close on the sea-shore, stands the celebrated *Jagrenaut Pagoda*, an excellent landmark on this coast, which is low towards the sea. Though we often anchored near, and passed close to it, yet on account of the *surf* we never had an opportunity of landing to view its interior. The following account of it, however, is taken from Mr. Pennant's *Views of Hindostan*:

“ A few miles to the north-east of Chilka lake, close to the sea, stand the famous *Pagodas of Jagrenaut*, which consist of three large and lofty buildings, swelling out in the middle like a barrel, and tapering upwards to a point; these are good landmarks, and may be seen eight or ten leagues at sea. Besides these, are multitudes of small ones, each of which is a sanctuary, and contains a deity. Besides, there are other buildings of different forms, some for the reception of pilgrims, of which not less than 150,000 annually visit this venerated place, who are entertained here. A singular charity is observed: the casts feed promiscuously, without fear of pollution; a constant dread in every other part.

“ Du Perron says, that the three great pagodas are inclosed in a square wall, made of enormous black stones, and that each side of the wall is an hundred fathoms in extent; and that in each is a gate facing the four points of the compass. On one of the great pagodas is an enormous *or or coa*, cut out of stone, with four parts projecting from the wall;—this is the favorite sacred animal of Hindostan. Near the pagoda is a large chapel, where the Brahmins deliver their discourses: as to the deity, he is exhibited in a form of stone, most rudely cut. Instead of one eye he had a ruby, instead of the other a carbuncle. A *Dutchman*, chief of the factory, knew the *difference*, and dexterously purloined the ruby. The image has likewise a mouth and nose painted with vermillion. None except *Pariahs* are denied admittance to the deity.

“ The *Brahmins* wash the images of Jagrenaut six times every day, and dress them every time in fresh clothes; as soon as they are dressed, fifty-six Brahmins attend them, and present them

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with various kinds of food. This image is never removed out of the temple; but its effigy is often carried in procession in a most enormous coach, four stories high, with sixteen wheels, and capable of containing two hundred persons; it is drawn by a cable of great length. Zealous votaries will fling themselves before the wheels to gain a death that is to insure them a happy immortality! Near the pagoda are several cells or convents, the lodgings of the Brahmins, of whom there are about five hundred. Part of these are perpetually employed in praising the deity, attended with the music of tabors and cymbals; while another part is busied in dressing quantities of rice for the use of the numerous poor; but a portion is always offered first to Jagrenant. Much also is sold to the numerous pilgrims who crowd here from all parts of India. These are not allowed to pay their respects to his godship till they have performed the ceremony of ablution in the neighbouring tank or reservoir, which is made of different coloured stones.

“ The legend of Jagrenant is, that he was a *foreigner*, but was found on the shore by certain fishermen, in his *present form*; that he addressed himself to them, and informed them that he came out of *pure charity* to reside among them, and requested a *proper lodging*, which the reigning prince immediately supplied in its present form.

“ All this country is filled with deer, antelopes, and birds terrestrial and aquatic, in numbers incredible; the sea and rivers swarm with fishes.

“ The wonder ceases when we consider the respect paid by the Hindoos to the *Pythagorean* doctrine. They will not eat of any animal food; they will neither destroy any animal, or suffer to be destroyed any thing in which is *life*.”

“ Parcite, mortales, dapibus temerare nefandis,
 “ Corpora. Sunt fruges; sunt deducuntia ramos
 “ Pondere poma suo, tumideque in vitibus uvæ;
 “ Sunt herbæ dulces. Sunt quæ mitescere flamma
 “ Mollisque queant. — Nec vobis lacteur humor
 “ Eruptur, nec mella thymi redolentia florem,
 “ Prodigæ divitias alimentaque mitia tellus,
 “ Suggest atq. epulas sine cede et sanguine prebet,
 “ Carne feræ sedant jejuna.”

“ They never drink wine. Like the followers of Pythagoras, they never eat any thing that had life: like them, they firmly believe in the transmigration of souls*; they hold the elements

* “ So erst the sage, with scientific truth,
 “ In Grecian temples taught th’ attentive youth;
 “ With ceaseless change, how restless atoms pass
 “ From life to life, a transmigrating mass;

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of water and fire in the utmost veneration; the water of the *Ganges* is thought peculiarly sacred. A *clic* is most particularly respected. They are *monogamists*; have their deities and idols of the wildest and most horrible forms; have wonderful legends of their actions, and most mystic tales. The *pagodas* are their temples, many of extravagant magnificence in strange and vast sculptures.

"The pagoda of this deity is certainly of most essential use to mariners on this very low coast. It appears from the sea to consist of three great towers, one of which is much higher than the other two. On the top of each is a great ball stuck on a spike, the emblem of the deity. The sea off this land is deep; but as the land is not visible till the ship is almost on shore, the utility of a land-mark is very great. The depth of water, even near the shore, is twelve fathoms."

COROMANDEL COAST IN GENERAL.

Having thus given some sketches of the principal places on this coast, where European ships touch, I shall conclude with a few observations on the coast in general.

From *Coringa*, at the mouth of the *Godaverry*, northward to *Gangam*, the coast is, generally speaking, mountainous; and again, from *Coringa* southward, it is low, flat, and sandy, with a few exceptions, such as the Pellicate hills, and some detached mounts about Madras, Sachas, &c.

CURIOUS PHENOMENON.

Aug. As we were employed during the whole of the S. W. monsoon in coasting up and down this shore, we had constant opportunities of remarking, that wherever the coast was *mountainous*, the monsoon kept its *underlying* course along the shore; blowing with considerable force, and rendering our passages extremely tedious when *beating to windward*; indeed between *Gangam* and *Coringa* we seldom could gain more than ten miles a day, sometimes not so much. But on the other hand, where the coast was *low* and *sandy*, the monsoon seemed to *disappear*, and in its stead we had regular *land* and *sea* breezes.

"How the same organs which to day compose
 "The poisonous hebane, or the fragrant rose,
 "May with to-morrow's sun new forms compile,
 "Frown in the *hell*, in the *beauty* smile,
 "Whence drew our enlighten'd sage the moral plan,
 "That *man* should ever be the *friend of man*;
 "Should love with tenderness all living forms
 "His *brother-creats*, and his *sister-creats*."

Origin of Society, Canto 4.

They account for the want of the latter winds on the mountainous coast, by supposing that the high land obstructs their course; but this seems to be a very bad reason, for there is nothing to obstruct the *sea breeze* setting in at all events, whatever influence the mountains may have on the land wind.

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I think it may be better accounted for in another way: but first I must just mention the cause of land and sea breezes in general.

It is well known that from the time the sun begins to emerge above the eastern horizon, until he gains his meridian altitude, the earth is gradually acquiring a temperature *above* that of the sea; this causing a *rarefaction* or *expansion* of the air over the surface of the land, it ascends into the higher regions, and a column of *dense* and *cool* air rushes in from the sea about mid-day to preserve the equilibrium:—thus producing the *sea breeze*.

The above cause continuing to operate while the sun is above the horizon, we of course have the sea breeze during the remainder of the day: but at night, when the earth *loses* its acquired heat, and even *sinks* in temperature *below* that of the sea, the air which had ascended in a rarefied state during the day, begins to *condense* in the upper regions, and pressing upon that below, a column of air is sent off towards the sea; and thus the *land breeze* is produced.

The sole cause then of these semi-diurnal breezes being the *capacity* which the earth has for acquiring a *higher temperature* than the sea, the cause becomes evident why they do not take place on a mountainous coast, where, as on this part of the Coromandel, the hills are covered with trees and verdure, which retaining the dews that fall in the night, the earth is as cool during the day as the sea. The mountains therefore do not obstruct the course of these periodical breezes, but prevent their *existence*.

Notwithstanding this, there are frequently sea and land breezes where the coast is high; as at Queda, Sumatra, &c; but then they are generally faint and irregular; and most probably produced by tracts of *cultivated* or *barren* lands lying behind the mountains which we see near the shore.

CALCUTTA.

Ill health now forcing me to leave the country, and having obtained a passage from Madras to Bengal, in the American brig Caravan, we arrived in the Ganges on the twenty-first of October, 1805.

Even in the short space of two years, I could perceive that Calcutta had increased in size: the *Government-House* was now completely finished and looked uncommonly well; but, alas! the lofty dome, or “portico sublime,” is no security against the icy hand of death! The Marquis Cornwallis’s decease had spread a universal gloom over all ranks of people in this settlement; at the moment too, when they looked up to him as a common fa-

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ther, who was to restore tranquillity and prosperity to this distracted country!

“The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
“And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
“*Await alike th' inevitable hour,*
“*The paths of glory lead but to the grave!*”

This great Statesman and General died at the village of Gazeepour, situated on the banks of the Ganges, about six hundred miles above Calcutta; and his remains were interred without pomp or ceremony by the few attendants who composed his suite. At the moment of his interment a thunder-storm took place, the most tremendous that was ever recollected in this part of the country; and it seemed as if the very *elements* themselves expressed in loud accents, their sorrow at this *ever to be lamented* event.

It is needless to say that the inhabitants of Calcutta, with their usual *princely liberality*, are about to erect a monument to the memory of this departed hero, on the spot where he died. But, alas!

“Can storied urn, or animated bust,
“Back to its mansion draw the fleeting breath?
“Can honour's voice provoke the silent dust?
“Or friendship sooth the dull-cold ear of death?”

On the third of November his Majesty's ship *Medusa* weighed anchor from Saugur roads, in order to convey the melancholy tidings to England.

I shall not trouble the reader with a dull diary of “winds and weather” on this voyage, but transport him at one gigantic stride, from the Ganges to the Cape of Good Hope, a distance of six thousand six hundred and forty-eight miles, which we traversed in forty-one days.—*Vide the chart.*

ST. HELENA.

On the fourteenth of December we passed in sight of the Cape, and shaped our course for St. Helena. As this is only a small island in the midst of a vast ocean, and distant nearly two thousand miles from the Cape of Good Hope, it would seem rather wonderful that ships have not frequently missed it, especially before *Lunars* and *Chronometers* arrived at their present degree of perfection. In those times, however, it was usual for ships to steer a course that would certainly bring them to the *eastward* of the island; and as soon as they got into its *parallel* of latitude, they steered *due west* until they reached it.

As we could depend on our calculations, we steered a *direct* course; and on the ninth day from the Cape (twenty-second of

December,) we saw the island at sun-rise, distant about fifteen leagues.

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On approaching it from the S. E. it appears like a lofty irregular ridge of rocks; the northern extremity of which is very abrupt, and the southern more shelving: at a small distance from the latter, there are two rocks called the "*Needles*," one of which bears a striking resemblance to a large *ship* under all *sail*; so much so indeed, that the man at the mast-head gave notice of a *ship in shore*.

On drawing near the land, this island appears girt with a chain of inaccessible precipices, behind which, craggy and barren mountains shoot up to a great height, on whose summits are placed telegraphs, to give notice when ships are approaching the island.

Some of the rocks that form this chain, are split down to their bases, disclosing chasms which are hideous to behold; while others assume the most fantastic shapes, resembling castles, towers, &c. We now steered for a high promontory called *Barn's Point*, which we passed at the distance of a *cable's length*: it is the most stupendous cliff I ever beheld, being nearly *perpendicular*, and *fifteen* or *sixteen-hundred* feet high. From hence we steered close along shore for *Sugar-loaf hill* and *point*; on the peak of the former there is a telegraph, and on a jutting crag of the latter, about 80 or 90 feet above the level of the sea, there is a small *battery* of three or four guns, to compel vessels to *heave-to* and "*send their boats on shore*." The latter words are painted in large letters, on a black board, in a conspicuous part of the battery, and written in three different languages.

The officer at this station has orders, when a ship draws near the point, to *first* fire a gun at her with *blank cartridge*. If she disregards this, he is to fire a *shot athwart her hawse*, that is, *a-head of her*; if she still persists, he is to fire *right into her*: after which all the other batteries open in succession.

Having *hove-to*, and sent a boat ashore to announce the name of the ship, we presently filled, and made sail for the anchorage; passing close to Rupert's valley, and several ranges of batteries formed among the precipices.

On rounding Rupert's hill, *James-town* and *Valley* presented themselves, a-breast of which we anchored, at about a quarter of a mile from the beach. While the ship and fort were saluting each other, the reverberations of sound among the rocks and mountains, resembled the loudest peals of thunder, and, joined to the novelty of the surrounding prospects, formed a striking contrast to the monotonous scenery which our eyes had been accustomed to, since our departure from India.

ST. JAMES'S VALLEY AND TOWN.

James's valley is formed by two craggy ridges, called Rupert's and Ladder hill, which gradually receding from each other, as they approach the sea, at length terminate at its edge, in two stupendous and almost perpendicular cliffs; leaving an intermediate triangular space, about a mile and half in length, and two hundred and fifty yards broad at its base.

This base is a *fortified line*, extending from cliff to cliff, and mounting thirty pieces of heavy cannon, nearly level with the water's edge. Immediately behind this line, the *government house* and *church* are situated; from whence the town extends up the valley, which gradually decreasing in breadth, leaves at last only room for a single house.

In this small space, however, there are several little gardens, groves, and shady walks, that add to the neat appearance of the town, the houses of which are handsomely built in the English style, generally two stories high, and well white-washed. Upon the whole it greatly resembles a pretty little country town in England, the inhabitants, language, and manners being all English.

Looking up from the streets towards *Rupert's* and *Ladder Hill*, the scene is awfully sublime! the *stranger* shudders to behold enormous masses of rock, impending on each side of the valley from a prodigious height, and which, from their wild fractured appearance, seem ready every instant to hurl destruction on the town below! yet these objects are eyed by the inhabitants, with the most perfect indifference.

ST. HELENA BAY

Being formed by two projecting promontories, and situated on the *Lee side* of the island, is of course, completely sheltered from the S. E. trade winds by the mountains, and protected from the long swell of the southern ocean, by the island itself. It thus affords a safe and commodious anchorage for our ships, which may lie close to the rocks, in water as smooth as glass.

Fresh water distils down from the crevices in the rocks, and being collected in a reservoir, under Rupert's hill, ships' boats can lie at the jetty side there and have the hoses led into the casks.

When all these circumstances are kept in mind, and we take a view of the town, the valley, and surrounding rocks, from the roads, we find no bad description of the whole, in the first book of the *Aeneid*, where *Aeneas*, after the storm, lands near the port of Carthage.

" *Est in secessu longo locus; insula portum*
 " *Efficit objectu laterum; quibus omnis ab alto*
 " *Frangitur, inque sinus scindit sese unda reductos.*
 " *Hinc atque hinc rursus rapes, geminique minantur*
 " *In cœlum scopuli: quorum sub vertice late*
 " *Æquora tuta silent, tum silvis scena coruscis*
 " *Desuper.*
 " *Intus aquæ dulces, vivoque ædilia saxo;*
 " ————— *hic fessas non vincula naves,*
 " *Ulla tenent: nec non alligat anchora moras.*"

Æneid. lib. 1.

" Within a deep recess there lies a bay,
 " An island shades it from the rolling sea,
 " And forms a port secure for ships to ride:
 " Broke by the jutting land on either side,
 " In double streams, the briny waters glide,
 " Betwixt too rugged rocks a sylvan scene
 " Appears below*, and groves for ever green.

— * — — — — —

" Down through the crannies in the living walls,
 " The crystal streams descend in murmur'ing falls,
 " No halsets need to bind the vessels here,
 " Nor crooked anchors, for no storms they fear."

Dryden's Translation.

EXCURSION THROUGH THE ISLAND.

As our stay at this place was limited to forty-eight hours, we had no time to lose; and accordingly a party of us having procured horses, we started from *James-town*, at day-break of the 24th December, in order to make a tour through the island.

We commenced our journey by ascending *Ladder-hill*, a precipice, which, at first sight, seems designed by nature as a barrier that would for ever defy the human race to scale; yet human industry has, by incredible exertions in blowing up the rocks, formed a zig-zag path to its summit†.

About midway we stopped to take a view of the town, which, even from this height, looks like one in miniature; the streets

* I must confess, I have been obliged to do violence to "*desuper*," in the original; as James' Valley, the only *sylvan scene* on this side of the island, happens unfortunately to be *below*, and not *above*, the contiguous rocks and precipices.

" † So when proud Rome, the Asiatic warrior brav'd,
 " And high on Alps his crimson banner wav'd;
 " Though rocks on rocks their beetling brows oppose,
 " With pine forests and unthaw'd snows;
 " Where girt with clouds the rifled mountain yawns,
 " And chills with length of shade the gellid lawns;
 " Onward he march'd to *Latium's* velvet ground,
 " With fires and winds burst the rocky bound,
 " Wide o'er her weeping vales destruction hurl'd,
 " And shook the rising empire of the world."

Botanic Garden

resembling those formed by the little houses which we see in *toy-shop*, the whole assuming such a *mimic* appearance, that a person would be almost tempted to think, he could cover a considerable part of the town with one of his hands. Looking upwards, what a contrast! Who, without emotions of terror, can behold such gigantic projections of rock hanging over him, in so loose and disjointed a state, that the excited imagination prints them in the very act of precipitating themselves headlong down the hoard steps?

Accidents of this kind sometimes happen, by the wild goats climbing along the edges of the precipices, and loosening small pieces of rocks, which rolling down, displace others still larger; till at length, whole showers of them come tumbling down into the valley, to the no small terror of the inhabitants, on which account no person is allowed to keep tame goats on this side of the island, and a premium is given for shooting wild ones.

LADDER HILL.

On Ladder hill are mounted twenty-two or twenty-four pieces of cannon, some ranged along the brow of the *cliff*, that overhangs the town, and some along that which overlook the road.

Six or seven of these are mounted on *depressing carriages*, so as to fire right down into the town and roads, thereby completely commanding those places, the rest are mounted in common carriages, and serve the purpose of a *saluting battery*. Over these precipices few of us would venture to look.

“Test the brain turn, and the deficient sight

“Topple down headlong”

King Lear

From hence we proceeded for *High Knowl*, over a tract which may be termed *sterility itself*, every step we ascended, presenting new views of rocks and mountains, congregated on each side in the wildest order, and without exhibiting an atom of vegetation! Such is the prospect when within a few paces of the summit of High Knowl, and which is finely contrasted with the *glassy surface* of an immense expanse of ocean, which the great height of the place enables the eye to survey.

VIEW FROM HIGH KNOWL.

We now ascended to the tower on the top of the knowl, which we no sooner reached, than all this *rude scenery* instantly vanished like a magical delusion! leaving the eye to range over a series of beautiful little valleys, groves, and lawns, *verdant* as the spring, and affording luxuriant pasturage to the flocks and herds that strayed among them.

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Throughout this prospect were interspersed small plantations, gardens, and handsome little country houses; the whole surrounded by a lofty irregular ridge of hills and precipices, that formed a grand *outline* and striking *contrast* to the *picturesque* scenes they enclosed.

Here our attention was chained for some time; at length we descended the south side of the knoll, which is rather steep, and soon arrived at the governor's country residence, called *Plantation House*. It is situated on the side of a pleasant little valley, with small plantations and gardens adjoining, and commands a very fine prospect of the sea: in my opinion, however, the situation does no great credit to the taste of the person who first pitched upon it, as it is much inferior to many places which we afterwards saw: its proximity to the town, was probably the cause of its being preferred.

Our road now took a winding direction, along the declivities of little hills, whose green sides sloping down to the principal valley on the left, formed a number of little *glens* and *dells*, from whose beauty one would be almost tempted to pronounce them the favourite haunts of *fairies*. We could not help stopping at every turning of the road, to admire this interesting landscape, whose prominent features were perpetually varying, from the different points of view in which they were seen.

VIEW FROM SANDY-BAY RIDGE.

After a pleasant ride of about an hour, we came to *Sandy-Bay Ridge*, over which we were to pass in our way to the bay of the same name. When near its summit, we halted for a few minutes, in order to take a farewell look at the *northern prospect*, not expecting to see any thing like it on the island again*. What then must have been our surprise, when, on mounting the ridge, a scene burst upon our view, as much superior to the one we had so reluctantly left, as that one was to a *dreary heath*? But I shall not attempt to give a description of it. Had *Dr. Johnson*, when writing his *Prince of Abyssinia*, been seated on *Sandy-Bay Ridge*, he might have described from *nature* a valley more beautifully romantic, than even his own *fertile imagination* has been able to form for young *Rasselas*.

- * " So with long gaze admiring eyes behold
- " The varied landscape all its lights unfold;
- " The rocks oppose no'er the stream project
- " Then naked bosoms, and the beams reflect;
- " Green sloping lawns construct the scholar's scene,
- " And guide the sparkling rill that glides between,
- " Dim hills behind, in pomp & coral rise,
- " Lift their blue tops, and melt into the skies "

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Nature must certainly have been in one of her good humoured and most whimsical, creative moods, when she formed this bay; and indeed St. Helena altogether, where she has strewed the sublime and beautiful, with a hand liberal even to profusion, though in a very small space.

On this ridge we alighted, and permitted our horses to feed for some time on the rich pasture with which it is crowned, in order that we might survey at leisure, the romantic landscape which lay stretched before us, painted by the great hand of nature.

Although I will not attempt to give any general description of this place, yet I cannot help taking notice of some particular parts.

Among the rude features of the southern side, one's attention is arrested by two huge rocks of fantastic shapes, which from this point of view seem to stand close to each other, and have got the names of "*Lot and his Wife*." The former, which is by far the more curious of the two, shoots up to a giddy height from a rugged foundation near the sea, in the form of a huge natural pyramid or tower, of a most singular and stupendous appearance.

Whether this has stood here *ab origine*, or was produced during some violent convulsion of nature, I shall not presume to decide; though I am inclined to think the latter has been the case, as a great many of the rocks are complete masses of lava: and from the conical forms which the hills all over the island have assumed, we may safely pronounce them of volcanic origin*.

* Since writing the above sketches, I have been gratified by observing the following remarks on this part of the island, by the author of "*Description of St. Helena*."

"There is a singular group of these detached masses on the south side of the island, to which the inhabitants have given the name of "*Lot, Lot's Wife and Daughters*."

"They rise to an astonishing height above the tops of the hills: and though they seem at first sight detached and unconnected masses they are found on examination to form a part of the vertical strata, and have a most striking appearance, surrounded by deep chasms and tremendous precipices, and with clusters of arid, rugged hills, the most picturesque and romantic, whose summits are all regularly fashioned, and discover every tint of colour, excepting that of vegetable green."

"Over all this part of the island which borders on *Sandy Bay*, there is a wildness in the surrounding scenery, surpassing every thing which the writer of this has ever seen."

"One feels here as if transported into a new planet, where every object strikes by its novelty, and is altogether unlike any thing which he had ever before seen. All the surrounding hills, chills, rocks, and precipices, are strangely fashioned, and so fantastically mixed and blended, that they resemble more the aerial shapes which we see among the clouds, than any thing composed of denser materials."

Description of St. Helena, p. 36.

SINGULAR ANECDOTE OF A SLAVE.

While sitting on this ridge, enjoying the prospect, one of the islanders related, among other anecdotes, the following one respecting the rock which goes by the name of *Lot*. 1805.
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A slave belonging to one of the farmers, who had (or fancied he had) been maltreated by his master, seizing one day a small quantity of provisions, ran to this rock, and in his ardour for *freedom*, climbed with unparalled efforts to its very summit.

Having been observed in his flight, a number of slaves were collected, and rewards offered to those who would go up and seize the fugitive. he very soon, however, routed these *invaders* of his newly acquired *independence*, by hurling down fragments of rock, which forced them to fly in all directions, and with the utmost precipitation, to a considerable distance. Here, though with the prospect of famine before him, he preferred his solitary aerial abode, with *liberty*, to all the allurements which society and food held out to him in the valley, at the expence of that *favourite ideal goddess*! As the base of the rock was of considerable extent, and as they were obliged to keep at a respectful distance even from this, it was found a very difficult matter to blockade him. Accordingly he contrived to steal down occasionally by night, and levy contributions on the neighbouring farm-yards, with whose local situations he was well acquainted, taking care always to repair, before day-light, to his lofty citadel, where he might enjoy at leisure the fruit of his expeditions, without fear of being molested in his "*solitary reign*."

Such a *predatory system*, however, was attended with too many dangers to exist long; and accordingly he was one night detected in his rambles, the alarm was given, and before he could regain his favourite *rock of liberty*, poor *blacky* was caught, and condemned once more to the galling chain!

SANDY-BAY VALLEY.

We now descended to the valley by a steep winding path, and were amply repaid for our journey by the beauty of the prospect from this new point of view.

We left major D——'s seat on the right, and it appears by far the most elegant one on the island. About the middle of the valley, we were met by captain G——, who inviting us into his *chateau* (as he called it), seemed determined on his part, to wipe off any aspersions of *inhospitality* that might have been cast on the inhabitants of this island; by not only preparing to gratify our present appetites, but by pressing us to stop and spend our Christmas with him.

Indeed we began to perceive, that, though we had feasted our *imagination*s most luxuriously on the romantic scenes which

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Be that as it may, we did not now hesitate to do ample justice to the festive board, making such repeated applications to our kind host's "*Anno Domini*," (in which the old gentleman faithfully pledged us,) that we were soon in such a state of exhilaration, that we determined to "climb the mountain-top," and prosecute our tour up to *Diana's Peak*, the *ne plus ultra*, or highest part of St. Helena.

Remounting therefore, we ascended *Sandy-Bay Ridge*, and turning to the right, proceeded in an easterly direction, until the steepness and ruggedness of the ascent, with the closeness of the underwood, obliged us to dismount. After an hour's scrambling, climbing, and tearing through the bushes (during which some of the party gave it up entirely), we arrived at the summit of the peak; which being nearly in the centre of the island, and two thousand seven hundred feet above the level of the sea, commands a complete view of St. Helena, and a great extent of ocean, in every direction, bounded only by the far distant horizon.

Here the detached scenes and prospects, which we had been admiring severally, were now, with many others, brought into one *coup d'œil*, and certainly formed a most interesting picture; every point of the compass presenting, as it were, a new landscape, distinguished by some striking feature in the outline, or beautiful little valley in front; the whole forming a most *superb panorama*, painted by a *hand* which *defied* all *human imitation*.

The light flying clouds, which would frequently come sailing along on the S. E. breeze, and involve us in a momentary gloom, considerably heightened the *effect* of this picturesque scenery, by snatching it, as it were, for a few minutes at a time, entirely from our view; when again, by their sudden dispersion, the whole variegated prospect would lie extended before us.

"So when light clouds on airy pinions sail,
"Flit the soft shadows o'er the waving vale;
"Shade follows shade, as laughing zephyrs drive,
"And all the chequer'd landscape seems alive."

The air on this peak, and indeed on all the hills of the island, was as cool as it usually is in the month of April in England,

though it was now the middle of summer here, and the sun nearly vertical at mid-day.

We need not wonder at this, when we consider, that the perpetual breeze, blowing over an immense extent of ocean, becomes quite cool before it reaches this island, whose elevated mountains attracting and condensing the passing clouds, are constantly moist; and hence the evaporation from their summits is another cause of coolness in the air.

We now descended by a rugged ridge to a telegraph station, called "*Halley's Mount*," where we were informed the celebrated Dr. Halley had pitched his tent, many years ago, to observe the *transit of Venus* over the sun's disk. From hence we went down another shattered ridge, on each side of which there was a deep ravine, that made us almost dizzy to look into. At length we came to *Side Path*, a narrow road cut along the side of a steep defile, which led us at last to *James' valley*, where we arrived at sunset, very much fatigued, yet highly gratified with our *twelve hours' excursion*.

On repairing to the only inn St. Helena affords (the master of which officiates in the triple capacity of inn-keeper, manager of the theatre, and principal performer), we requested a beef-steak or mutton-chop, with all expedition, as the keen air of the mountains had given us pretty keen appetites. The *Roscins* of *St. Helena*, after surveying us for some time with astonishment, and throwing himself into a theatrical attitude, exclaimed, "Good God, gentlemen! you must have a very imperfect idea of the extent to which *humanity towards the brute creation* is carried in this island! Why, gentlemen, there is more ceremony, more caution, used here in cutting the throat of a bullock or a sheep, than there is in cutting the throat of a *citizen* in some of your European countries! In fact, gentlemen, no inhabitant can *put to death* one of his own animals, without the express permission of the *governor in council*."

"The deuce take your Pythagorean humanity," cried we; "so we must starve, forsooth, on account of your affected lenity to a paltry sheep or bullock." "Not so," replied the hero of the buskin; "British tars will surely not complain of starving, when there is good *salt junk* and plenty of *grog* at their service."

Though we were not perfectly of our host's opinion, we were nevertheless obliged to put up with what he could give us; and the addition of a dish of fish proved highly acceptable after our fatiguing journey.

1805

Dec.

1803.

Dec.

MISCELLANEOUS PARTICULARS.

The island of St. Helena was first discovered by the Portuguese, in 1508, on the twenty-first of May, which is St. Helen's feast; and hence the name of the island. The English formed a settlement on it in 1660; and a few years afterwards it was taken by the Dutch, from whom it was retaken by the English under captain Menden, in 1674, and has ever since remained in the hands of the East India company.

It is about a thousand miles to the southward of the *line*, and nearly the same distance from the African continent. The coast describes an irregular indented line, which from point to point measures twenty-eight miles in circumference; its greatest length is about ten miles, and breadth six or seven.

It is in most places fortified by nature; and where not so, they have guns to point on every spot that is at all accessible. We were told that there were between four and five hundred pieces of cannon mounted on the different batteries round the island; and that they could turn out between fourteen and fifteen hundred regular troops, independent of militia, which might amount to a thousand more. The total population on the island may be about six thousand souls.

They are vigilant on the approach of a fleet; and as no boats could land to *windward* of the island, on account of the surf, while guns are placed on every crag and eminence to *leeward*, it would be a very difficult matter to take the island.

Though black cattle thrive remarkably well here, yet from the small extent of pasture grounds which the island affords, the government is obliged to limit the inhabitants in the use of flesh meat; in order that the island may serve the purpose for which it is kept at a great expence by the company, namely, to afford refreshments and water to the homeward-bound ships.

On this account the *military* and *servants* are only allowed fresh beef or mutton four times a year, at each of these periods the former have three, and the latter five fresh meals. The gentlemen of course have them frequently, though with some restrictions. This inconvenience, however, is amply compensated for, by the great abundance of vegetables produced on the island, and the shoals of fish that surround its shores. Potatoes are reared here in such abundance, that ships might be freighted with them; and their quality is not inferior to that of English potatoes. Among the culinary vegetables, the cabbages of this island are remarkably fine. No grain, I believe, is sown in any part of St. Helena.

It is somewhat singular, that on this island the order of nature seems to be in some respects inverted; for we see the summits

and sides of the loftiest mountains clothed with fertility and verdure; while the lesser hills, and even the valleys, become barren as they approach the sea.

This circumstance is easily accounted for, when we consider that all the *lofty peaks* are perpetually *watered* by the *passing clouds*; many of which being arrested in their progress, and condensed on the brows of the mountains, prove to them a never failing *source of fertility*, which is totally denied to the *lower hills and valleys*; rain being a very *rare* phenomenon on this island.

The climate of St. Helena is remarkably salubrious, and conducive to longevity; the temperature of the air being very moderate, considering its situation within the tropics, where the sun is vertical twice a year. From the great inequality of the surface of this island, there is considerable diversity in its climate; the thermometer on the heights frequently sinking below 54° ; while in James's valley it is sometimes above 84° .

There are no land and sea breezes here, the island not being sufficiently large, nor capable of acquiring a temperature that would produce those diurnal winds. The south-east trade, therefore, (excepting at those periods when the sun is vertical,) blows constantly over the island with a steady and uniform force. Storms, rain, thunder, and lightning are consequently very rare occurrences, and never happen but when the sun is passing over the island in his annual course.

The greatest inconvenience which St. Helena is subject to, is *drought*; which has been known to continue for three years, and prove a great scourge to the island; killing the cattle, destroying the trees, and withering every appearance of *vegetation*. It is supposed that the paucity of the *latter*, is a great cause of this deficiency in moisture; consequently they are endeavouring to spread vegetation and plant trees, as much as possible, over the arid rocks near the shore.

It is remarked by the inhabitants, that storms, attended with thunder, lightning, and rain, occur about once in ten or twelve years, sometimes doing great mischief; the rocks and crags being loosened and dislodged by the ram, sweep away at those times, the little farms and gardens situated on the declivities.

It is a singular circumstance, that men and animals are here exempt from two of the greatest evils that have ever visited society, in the shape of disease: I mean the *small-pox* and *hydrophobia*, which have never made their appearance on this island.

With respect to the inhabitants, we had not much time to make many observations; and I shall therefore take the liberty of quoting the words of a gentleman who has lately given a minute and entertaining account of this island.

1805.

Dec.

“The situation of a little colony, embosomed in the recesses of a rocky island, and separated by an immense ocean from the troubles and calamities of the surrounding world, we should willingly figure to ourselves as the retreat of happiness; which those who sought for it in retirement might expect to find in the valleys of St. Helena. Here the inhabitants, in the enjoyment of ease and security, have only to attend to the care of their families and gardens; where they are blessed with some of the best things which this world can give: with long life; exemption from disease; a healthful offspring; and beautiful women. Yet it must be confessed, with whatever sorrow, that the happiness and content which some consider as attainable in a state of retirement from the great and busy world, are only delusive phantoms, feigned by sages and poets, in the fond hope of finding somewhere, what hitherto has not been found on earth.

“Of a little society thus shut up in an irksome solitude, and having few opportunities of intercourse with the rest of mankind, it would be pleasant to think that they passed their days agreeably together; and that envy and discord had never found their way to those sequestered retreats, where fancy would gladly paint the abode of simplicity and innocence. But whether from family jealousies, which are apt to arise in such confined situations, or that those little tales of scandal and whispers of detraction, which are so frequently heard in small communities, or from whatever other cause, it is to be regretted that the peace and social intercourse of this settlement have been sometimes disturbed.”

An accurate and well informed traveller who visited this place, has remarked, “while ships are riding in the roads, and the inhabitants busy in supplying their wants, or eager to entertain their guests, their minds also occupied with foreign events, of which the strangers bring accounts to them, that any discussions subsisting among individuals in the place are suspended for the time; but that when the shipping season is over, and the settlement void of business, as well as of topics of discussion on distant incidents, intestine divisions sometimes revive; and that it is an object of government to divert their minds from private feuds, by engaging them in military exercises, or even in domestic amusements, or dramatic entertainments.

“To persons coming from the gay and cheerful scenes of the *East Indies*, where society is enlivened by the utmost ease and freedom of intercourse, and by the most unbounded hospitality, the manner in which the inhabitants of St. Helena pass their time, seems dull and irksome.

“To strangers they appear to associate very little together: and except during the shipping season, when they quit their country residences and live in *James-town*, they pass the remainder

of the year apart from each other at their garden-houses, between which, if their tenants were even more disposed to associate, the intervention of crags, precipices, and chasms, would preclude the opportunity of easy and frequent intercourse.

1805

Dec.

"It is customary for the passengers of the homeward-bound India-men, during their stay here, to live at the houses of the inhabitants; and excepting the governor and deputy-governor, and a few others, who entertain strangers with unbounded hospitality, all the inhabitants are ready to accommodate them with board and lodging, the terms of which are generally complained of as being extravagantly high.

"In a situation where the inhabitants during the greatest part of their time are cut off from all intercourse with the world, and left to look upon the naked expanse of the ocean, it will not easily be imagined what lively interest is excited by the appearance of any ship. The arrival of the homeward-bound India-men is the greatest event of the year, it fills the whole settlement with alacrity and joy; they quit their gardens, flock to *James-town*, open their houses for the accommodation of the passengers, and entertain them with plays, dances, and concerts.

"These gay assemblies are enlivened by the presence of many agreeable and handsome young women, natives of the place, who, amid the general festivity, seem to feel a peculiar interest in what is going forward; probably not without some throbbing expectations of being taken from a scene where they are weary with constantly contemplating the same objects. The appearance of so much loveliness and beauty cast away in a lonesome situation like this, has sometimes raised stronger emotions than those of mere sympathy in the bosoms of their guests: and the native women of *St. Helena* have adorned domestic life, and graced the politest circles in *England* and *India*."

Many humorous stories are told of the *locality of ideas*, which may be remarked among the inhabitants of *St. Helena*; of which I shall only mention two instances.

"A lady, one day in conversation with the captain of an India-man, asked him, if *London* was not very dull when the East-India fleet left England?"

This, though it may excite our merriment, was a very natural question from one who had always seen the arrival of this fleet produce the utmost festivity through her native isle.

"An English gentleman and one of the islanders walking one day together, stopped to look at a small spot of ground where the vegetation was very exuberant, when the islander, lifting up his hands, cried out with great fervour, 'If *St. Helena* were as fruitful as this place, it would be the noblest and richest country in the world!'

1806.

Jan.

" Such is the patriot's boast, where'er we roam :

" His *first, best country* ever is at home.

" With food, as well the peasant is supplied

" On Idra's cliffs, as Arno's shelvy side ;

" And tho' the rocky crested summits frown,

" Those *rocks by custom* turn to beds of down.

" Tho' poor the peasant's hut, his feast tho' small,

" He sees his little lot, the lot of all :

" Sees *no contiguous palace* rear its head,

" To shame the *meanness* of his *humble shed* ;

" No costly lord the *sumptuous banquet* deal,

" To make him loath his *vegetable meal*."

We took leave of this curious island on Christmas-day, and on the 26th of January, 1806, we saw the snow-topped hills of Cornwall; after a voyage, hitherto without a parallel in the annals of navigation. As the *Medusa* ran from the *Ganges* to the *Lizard* in eighty-four days, two of which were spent at anchor in St. Helena roads; consequently she was only eighty-two days under sail, in which time she traversed the immense space of *thirteen thousand eight hundred and thirty-one* miles.—Sir John Gore, then, may justly claim the merit of having made the most rapid passage, that has ever yet been performed between Bengal and England;—while the *Medusa's track* will exhibit to the philosopher and to the world, a striking instance of that *high degree of perfection* which British men of war have attained in every respect—not only constant *victors* in the day of battle, but as *couriers*, almost *outsripping* the *winds* themselves!

CONCLUSION.

By this time I have little doubt but that the *reader* is as tired of the voyage, and rejoiced at the sight of *Old England*, as I am. Having now, therefore, led him a round of more than *thirty thousand miles*, and shewn him every thing which I thought worthy of notice on the road, without once subjecting him to a *gale of wind*, a *scorching sun*, or a *noxious atmosphere*; I trust it will not be thought too *presuming*, if, as a *fellow-traveller*, I claim his indulgence to the many literary errors which I fear are but too profusely scattered through the preceding pages. They were written under the impulse of the moment, without study; committed to the press without correction; and are now, with the utmost *diffidence*, thrown on the mercy of the *indulgent reader*, "with all their imperfections on their heads!"

" To err, is human—to forgive, divine!"

END OF VOYAGE TO INDIA, &c.

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ERRATA.

Page	9,	line	8,	for	<i>Tencrief</i>	read	<i>Tencriffc.</i>
	11,	-----	21,	after	beautiful,	place	a (:)
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	19,	-----	22,	after	six	read	<i>months.</i>
	23,	-----	8,	for	<i>one fourth</i>	read	<i>one eighth.</i>
	26,	-----	16,	for	<i>indiscribably</i>	read	<i>undescribably.</i>
	31,	-----	7,	for	<i>Hozell</i>	read	<i>Holwel.</i>
	32,	-----	10,	for	<i>beings</i>	read	<i>objects.</i>
	59,	-----	3,	for	<i>maratime</i>	read	<i>maritime.</i>
	60,	-----	10,	for	<i>profered</i>	read	<i>proffered.</i>
	71,	-----	18,	for	<i>Syrausc</i>	read	<i>Syracuse.</i>
	88,	-----	24,	for	<i>quoque</i>	read	<i>quæque.</i>
	93,	-----	23,	after	<i>him</i>	omit	<i>to.</i>

DIRECTIONS TO THE BINDER.

Chart to face Title Page.

Plate I. Chinese Junk, to face page 58.

Plate II. Chinese Chop-boat to face page 63.

ANALYSIS
OF
A NEW WORK OF TRAVELS,

LATELY PUBLISHED IN LONDON.

THE STRANGER *in IRELAND; or, a TOUR in the SOUTHERN and WESTERN PARTS of that COUNTRY, in the year 1805.*
By JOHN CARR, Esq. of the Middle Temple, author of
"The Stranger in France," "A Northern Summer, &c. &c."
—1 vol. 4to. pp. 530; price 2l. 2s. London. PHILLIPS, 1806.

WHATEVER relates to a country so interesting as Ireland, and one which forms such an important appendage to the British empire, may be expected to excite the attention of the public in an extraordinary degree; but a work from the pen of such a writer as Mr. Carr, who travelled through that country expressly for the purpose of making observations illustrative of the Irish character, manners, and political economy, cannot fail to be eagerly sought for and patronised. It is from such a writer that we ought to expect an impartial account of the people he undertakes to describe, and who have too long been the victims of illiberal and unfounded prejudice, as well as of ill-judged political oppression. We therefore, as Englishmen, feel a peculiar pleasure in observing, that a countryman of our own has at length done justice to the virtues as well as the eccentricities of the Irish nation. We place implicit confidence in what Mr. Carr has related; and we are convinced that our readers will do him similar justice.

In his preface, he observes, that he has as much as possible avoided adverting to those points upon which the public opinion has hitherto been divided; and where he has touched upon them, he trusts it has been with becoming deference. With respect to the character of the people, he adds, that where

time and opportunity did not enable him to judge personally, he had the advantage of corresponding with some of the most able, impartial, and distinguished persons of Ireland, as well as Englishmen resident there.

Mr. Carr, as usual, entertains his readers with many pleasant anecdotes, arising from circumstances which occurred to him on his way to St. George's channel. A few of them are worth insertion in our abstract. On speaking of the excellence of the manufactures of Birmingham, through which town he passed, he mentions the following, and not generally known

ANECDOTE OF MR. BOLTON.

To shew the superiority of the manufactures of this place, it is related of Mr. Bolton of Solihy, to whose industry and enterprise the world is so much indebted, that when he was in Paris, some years since, a Frenchman of fashion exhibited a very beautiful paper-maché snuff-box, and observed to Mr. Bolton that he thought, able as the English were in every work of art, they were not equal to the manufacture of so beautiful and exquisite a piece of workmanship. Mr. Bolton requested to have it, and stepping aside to a window, with a fine penknife opened a part of it, and shewed the astonished Frenchman the name of Bolton upon it. Soon after a considerable wager was laid, that the steel manufactory in France was superior to that of England. Mr. Bolton accepted the bet, and on a given day one of the most celebrated French workers in steel produced his sample, which was very ingenious, but at this moment I forget what it was; to the surprise of the umpire, Bolton displayed a needle, enclosing another which contained a third, and won the wager.

Our author was so delighted with the vale of Llangollen, that he advises all his readers who are able, not to let another summer's sun pass away without paying it a visit!!

WELSH HUSBANDRY.

In the corn-fields of Llangollen, says Mr. Carr, I witnessed an instance of bad husbandry which surprised me: the Welsh farmers, in this part of Wales, mow and rake their corn together as we do our grass and hay: and when they have collected it in heaps, they stack it under a strong matting of straw, by which mode much of the grain must be shaken out and lost. The male peasant is fond of wearing a blue coat and blue stockings; and the female is generally attired in a broad black felt hat, tied under the chin with a blue ribbon, a gown of the same colour, and a light brown great-coat. The peasantry present a strange mixture of industry and indolence: on one side the traveller, if he pass into a cottage, will see a woman with a child at her breast, and

spinning; or, on the road, he will meet another knitting as she returns home from the day's occupation: whilst, on the other hand, he will be pestered with groupes of mendicant children, capable of working, running by the side of the carriage, and in a shrill sound exclaiming, "Got bless u, a penny, bless u." Their native language is a dialect of the Celtic.

CUSTOM OF BUNDLING!

One evening, at an inn where we halted, we heard a considerable bustle in the kitchen, and, upon enquiry, I was let into a secret worth knowing. The landlord had been scolding one of his maids, a very pretty plump little girl, for not having done her work; and the reason which she alledged for her idleness was, that her master having locked the street door at night, had prevented her lover from enjoying the rights and delights of *bundling*, an amatory indulgence which, considering that it is sanctioned by custom, may be regarded as somewhat singular, although it is not exclusively of Welsh growth. The process is very simple: the gay Lothario, when all is silent, steals to the chamber of his mistress, who receives him in bed, but with the modest precaution of wearing her under petticoat, which is always fastened at the bottom, not unfrequently, I am told, by a sliding knot. It may astonish a London gallant to be told, that this extraordinary experiment often ends in downright wedlock—the knot which cannot slide. A gentleman of respectability also assured me, that he was obliged to indulge his female servants in these nocturnal interviews, and that too, at all hours of the night, otherwise his whole family would be thrown into disorder by their neglect: the carpet would not be dusted, nor would the kettle boil. I think this custom should share the fate of the northern Welsh goats.

Habit has so reconciled the mind to the comforts of *bundling*, that a young lady who entered the coach soon after we left Shrewsbury, about eighteen years of age, with a serene and modest countenance, displayed considerable historical knowledge of the custom, without "one touch of bashfulness."

Mr. Carr embarked at Holyhead, and was detained in the passage of the Channel two days and nights by a dead calm—the usual time in fair weather is nine hours. This delay was attributed by the sailors to their having on board a mitred prelate!—At length he approached Dublin, and after some minute remarks on the bay, and superb mole at the harbour, he informs us of his entrance into a miserable long coach, where a ludicrous adventure occurred to him, which he thus describes:—Reader, if you love a laugh as well as I do, you will not be offended at me if I relate that two Scotchmen, who appeared to

the enthusiastic agriculturists of the modern school, committed their niece, one of the lovely daughters of green Erin (and indeed she was very beautiful), to my care in the carriage, there being no room for them; that, finding she had a bundle, I begged and prevailed upon her to let me bear it upon my lap for her, in which situation it had not been placed above ten minutes, before it began to stream with perspiration, and proved to be, to the cost of my pantaloons, a large piece of prize-pork, which her uncles, in their rage for fattening cattle, had brought over from England as a precious relic of their favourite system. The Irish will have a fair retaliating laugh at us, when they hear that the secretary of a celebrated English agricultural society, received orders from its committee to procure several copies of Mr. and Miss Edgeworth's Essay on Irish Bulls, upon the first appearance of that admirable book, for the use of the members, in their labours for improving the breed of cattle.

IRISH JAUNTING CAR.

Upon the road we saw several carriages peculiar to the country; that which struck me most was the jaunting car, an open carriage, mounted upon two small wheels, drawn by one horse, in which the company sit back to back, and hence the Irish, in badinage, call it an Irish *vis-à-vis*; whilst, on the other hand, considering the position of the parties and of the coachman, who is elevated in front, I have heard it more appropriately, though less delicately, nominated the *cul-à-cul*. This carriage is very convenient and easy, and will carry six persons besides the coachman. It much resembles the Russian carriage called the *droshka*. The entrance to the capital was through one of the barriers which were erected in the rebellion over one of the canals, which form an admirable protection to the city; and, after passing through several noble streets, we stopped at the mail-coach office, and I proceeded to the Royal Hotel in Kildare-street.

After roving through many noble streets, similar in character and beauty to those of the better parts of London, and being frequently struck with the novel sounds of, "Blood andounds, make haste, Pat, by my faith and shoul," I reached a jingle stand, and having heard much of this carriage, in company with a friend I mounted one, and took a drive upon a noble road for about two miles. This carriage resembles as much of a coach as remains after the doors and the upper sides and roof are removed, and is mounted very high upon four large slender wheels. Its motion produces a rattling noise, which furnishes its name: it is drawn by one miserable looking horse, whose fate it is frequently to pull after him, upon a smart trot, his driver and six passengers.

On the road I met one of them quite full, which, at a little distance, owing to the poor animal being enveloped in the fog of his own perspiration, made the passengers appear as if they were impelled by *steam*. The principal stand of these carriages is at the end of Bagot-street: they are numbered, and the drivers are subject to the control of the police for improper behaviour. They generally run to the Pigeon-house and to the Black-rock, and back again. The fare is sixpence only to each person, provided there is a complement of passengers; so that those who will not pay for the deficiency of the necessary number, must “sit, like Patience upon a monument,” till the vehicle is filled. These carriages, wretched as they look, are very convenient, and persons of the first respectability frequently ride in them. Away rolled Pat, my friend, and I. All the drivers, and almost every low Irishman, are called Pat, an abbreviation of Padily, a popular christian name, derived from St. Patrick, the tutelary saint of Ireland, who had the honours of canonization decreed to him for having, amongst other notable things which I shall hereafter have occasion to enumerate, illustrated the Trinity by a sham-rock or trefoil. On the road, we saw a poor jingling horse, which had been turned out to batten upon the sorry weed of the ditch, lying, as I thought, for ever removed from all the future toils of so wretched a destiny. “Poor animal!” said I, “he’s dead.” “And plaze your honour,” said Pat, “he is not *dead entirely*.”

A CAR, A NODDY, &c.

On the road we met several cars, which are used as common carts. This carriage, which is drawn by one horse, is very low, mounted upon wheels of about two feet in diameter, made out of one or two pieces of wood, fixed either on an iron or a wooden axle-tree, which turns round with them, and will carry about the load of three English wheel-barrows. A noddie also passed us: this carriage is now somewhat rare. It is an old, battered single-horse chaise, with the head up, having a seat for Pat upon the shafts, who is so placed that he retaliates upon his passenger, for the rump of the horse being placed close to his very mouth. As this machine moves, it nods; and hence, as the Irish are always descriptive in their expressions, I presume its name: these are all the carriages peculiar to the country.

The hackney-coaches are similar to those in London, but infinitely inferior in ease and cleanliness. Some wag has written, that the hackney-coach drivers of Dublin use very long poles in their coaches, at the end of which they fasten a bundle of hay out of the reach of the horse, by which ingenious arrangement the animal advances with increased ardour in the constant pursuit of food, which he is seldom permitted to taste: this picture

is utterly false. The horses, however, are very poor; and the whole establishment calls loudly for the ameliorating hand of the civil government.

We had not proceeded an Irish mile, eleven of which are equal to fourteen English, before Pat stopped, and said, "Plaze your honours, I will not drive your honours any farther, unless you will give me another *hog*, (a shilling.)" Knowing the word in its usual acceptation *only*, we thought proper to alight; and having paid him what he at first demanded, which was, as we afterwards found, three as much as his fare, we descended, and in learning what a hog was, we obtained the notes of the currency of Ireland.

CHARACTER OF THE IRISH BEGGARS

Although the beneficence of the country has provided so many comfortable asylums for the beggars of Dublin, they are numerous and wretched beyond conception: I think more so than in the provinces of France. Their dress is deplorably filthy, and indeed a wit to say, that he never knew what the beggars of London did with their cast-off cloaths, till he found that they were sold to the Dublin beggars. I have heard of a wandering wretch, who in passing over a corn-field, thought himself very fortunate in exchanging breeches with a mawkin or scarecrow, set up to frighten away the birds; and such seems to be the condition of the mendicants. Their perseverance is generally insissible.

Some of the police with a black covered cart occasionally go round the city to pick up such mendicants as do not disappear as the terrific vehicle turns the corner of a street, and convey them to the house of industry, from which they escape the first opportunity. They prefer a precarious crust of bread steeped in tears with liberty, to comfort and protection in the shape of restraint. In London we have many sights of sorrow before us, but they are generally confined to certain parts of the town; whereas in Dublin they affect the eyes, and ears, and disfigure the beauty of this superb city every where. As the present arrangements are so inadequate, the legislature cannot direct its eye with too much ardour and anxiety to the subject.

The native wit and humour of the low Irish is singularly happy. A beggar had been for a long time besieging an old, gouty, testy, limping gentleman, who refused his mite with great mutability, upon which the mendicant said, "Ah, plaze your honour's honour, I wish God had made your *heart* as tender as your *toes*." Many of these poor creatures, to secure a decent interment, respecting which the low Irish are very tenacious, with a spirit of hospitality beyond the grave, implore the aid of alms to

purchase a coffin for themselves, and candles, pipes, tobacco, and whiskey for their mourning friends.

Mr. Carr describes the dress of the lower Irish by quoting a paragraph from Spencer. It is a long loose woollen coat, of stone colour, which serves for all seasons.—The women are also very fond of a long great-coat with many capes.

CONTRASTED PICTURE OF ANCIENT AND MODERN DUBLIN; PRESENT STATE OF ITS POPULATION: VINDICATION OF THE PEOPLE, MISERIES OF THE POOR, &c.

Dublin, says Mr. Carr, may take a high rank amongst the finest cities of the earth. It covers an area of rather more than 1,400 acres, and is considered to be about seven Irish miles in circumference. In the year 964, in the preface to King Edgar's charter, she is styled "the most noble city of Dublin." After undergoing a variety of progressive improvements, in the year 1616 the river Liffey was embanked on the southern side only, with quays; the quay called the Pachelin's Walk, the Inn's quay, Little's quay, Ararat quay, the two Curmond quays, east and west of Essex bridge, to an extent of about a mile and a half, on which a row erected many noble houses, were at that period covered with mud, and overflowed by the tides: the whole of the foundation of that superb building, the Four Courts of Justice, opposite to Merchant's quay, is built upon mires. We find also at this period, that that part of the city called Oxmantown, or Oxmantown, was terminated to the east by Mary Abbey: that on the other side to the West Church-street and Merchant's church, were the bounds. Stoney-batter, now called Minor-street, Grange Gorman, and Glesnamogue, now a part of the city, were considerable distant villages, and so far was the latter from the capital, that in the time of the plague the sheriffs of Dublin held their courts there. At the same period, Temple bar, Crane lane, Fleet-street, Lazar's hill, &c. now called South Townsend-street, Chancery, Aston's, George's, and Sir John Rogerson's quays, on the south side of the Liffey, had not emerged from the water; and George's quay and many acres extending to Rinesend bridge, were only rescued from the same element within the last century. On the north side, Dame-street contained only a small collection of buildings, and terminated at the Augustine monastery, opposite to the end of George-lane, which was nearly the extent of the suburbs to the east. The city is nearly square, is mostly on a level, but compared with the surrounding country is rather low. It is watered by the river Liffey, which rises about four or five miles westward from the capital, and after nearly surrounding, with the most beautiful meanders, the county of Kildare, intersects almost equally the

city, where it much resembles the Seine, as many parts of *Dublin* through which it flows do the quay Voltaire, quay Malaquais, and the quay de Conti, and other quarters of Paris.

The number of parishes in Dublin is nineteen. The churches of the parishes of St. Nicholas without the walls, and St. Michael's, are in ruins, and the parish of St. Peter's has two churches; therefore the number of churches is at present eighteen: the church of St. George, included in this number, is not yet finished; it promises to be an elegant edifice: to these places of public worship belonging to the establishment, may be added the College-chapel, Blue-Coat-Hospital-chapel, Royal-Hospital-chapel, Magdalen-Asylum-chapel, Lying-in-Hospital-chapel, Bethesda-chapel, and the Foundling-Hospital-chapel.

The quakers have two meeting-houses in Dublin, the congregations of which amount to between six and seven hundred souls. The quakers scattered over the island are about five thousand, with about one thousand who frequent their meeting-houses, but are not in society. It is a singular circumstance, that in Dublin there are only three Jewish families, and it is believed that they have not at any period been more numerous, nor as far as I could learn, have they ever had a synagogue. In the cities of Cork, Waterford, Limerick, and Belfast, Jews are to be found, but in no part of the country of Ireland. Last year a foreign Jew from Königsburg, upon his conforming, was baptized. There are four meeting-houses for methodists, one for anabaptists, one for French lutherans, fifteen Roman catholic chapels, a church for French calvinists, a Danish and Dutch church. Its parochial division is very unequal. The parish of St. Catherine, the largest and nearly the poorest, comprehends 112 acres, and about 20,176 inhabitants; St. Nicholas within five acres, and about 1,100 inhabitants; and St. Peter's spreads over an area of 141 acres, including its squares, and about 16,063 inhabitants. The unequal duties of the clergy may be easily inferred from this statement, which are rendered the more oppressive, on account of the compensation for their services being very inadequate. The limits of parishes are so irregular, that small streets frequently contribute to the support of three different ministers, as is the case with the quarter called the Poddle. The country parishes vary still more from one to thirty miles. The most populous parishes are within the walls of the ancient city, viz the parishes of St. Michael, St. Nicholas within, St. Werburgh, St. John, the deanry of Christ's church, and the eastern part of St. Andrew.

The following is a lamentable picture of the defective state of the church-establishment in Ireland. There are 2,436 parishes, 1,001 churches, and only 355 glebe or parsonage-houses.

The benefices or union-parishes amount to 1,120; so that there are 2,081 parishes without any residence for the clergymen, and 1,425 parishes without any churches. Where there are no glebe-houses, the resident clergyman rents a house; where he does not reside his curate performs the service, and I was informed with tolerable regularity: but the inconvenience must be great, and residence from necessity rare.

The paving of Dublin commenced in 1774. There were no houses of brick or stone (except some poor religious houses) before the reign of Henry the second. The population of Dublin was determined from actual enumeration in the year 1798; and by the conservators of the peace in 1804, was found to amount to 182,370 souls. Since that period 700 houses have been built, which are tenanted. Seven thousand souls, or ten to a house, may at least be generally allowed, giving a total of 189,370; but as this average of ten to a house is below that of Dublin at large, which is between eleven and twelve, and as the population of the Castle is not included, the population of Dublin may be safely taken at 190,000, including the garrison. The difficulty of obtaining a correct account of the population of Ireland is great, on account of there being no registers of births, marriages, and deaths kept, except in Dublin, and even there I was informed they were kept very irregularly. A friend of mine from Ireland, in order to prove in the Court of Chancery here, that a ward of his was of age, was obliged to produce the great family Bible, as the only document that afforded him data of the event. The increase of population in the capital has been progressive. In 1682 Sir William Petty tells us there were thirteen parishes, including the two deaneries of Christchurch and St. Patrick; that there were but four thousand families, which at eight in each family, made thirty-two thousand souls. Since he wrote, three parishes have been added, viz. St. Catherine's, mentioned before, containing 20,176 inhabitants, St. Michael's 18,092 inhabitants, and St. Mary's above 16,000 inhabitants. The causes of this increase are various: Mr. Carr attributes them to the subsequent vice-regal splendour. Many of the streets are very superb. Sackville and Westmorland-streets and Cavendish-row may vie with any in London for their size and beauty; and most of the streets in the neighbourhood of Mountjoy and Rutland-squares in the north, and of St. Stephen's-green and Merrion-square in the south, are very handsome. The greater portion of the city is well paved and lighted, but in general very badly cleansed. The principal fuel is Newcastle coal, and turf from the bog of Allen.

Dame-street is the great focus of fashion, bustle, and business, and is lined with noble shops and buildings. It is the Rue

St. Honoré of Paris, and the Bond-street of London; and the beauty of the principal streets of Dublin is not disfigured as in London by an intermixture of butchers', fishmongers', and poulterers' stalls, which are confined to certain quarters of the town. This arrangement adds greatly to the beauty of the city. The number of houses which has been built since the union, amounts to about 1000. I found that the price of middling houses had considerably increased, and that of large ones had much diminished since that epoch. The union inevitably attracted a number of men of rank, wealth, and fashion to England, who have not been succeeded by an increase of persons of their own degree and resources to purchase their vacant houses at their own price, whilst the spirit and the means of the trading part of the community have increased to a degree developed by the great addition of buildings above stated. Of the principal public buildings I shall speak in the order of my visiting them. At night the city is admirably watched and patrolled. Most of the watchmen are armed with muskets, others with a pike having a curved knife, and the robberies which occur are very rare: indeed whilst I am upon this subject, I may mention, that in the course of my tour through different parts of Ireland, *although I was frequently alone, and had no other weapon than a toothpick*, I never met with the slightest molestation. The principal murders and depredations which are stated to have been committed in Ireland for some time past, have been manufactured by the editors of English newspapers, to fill up a vacancy in their prints. Upon these occasions, Limerick and its neighbourhood are generally selected for the scene of blood and outrage. The arrival of the mail frequently astonishes some of the inhabitants with an account of their own throats having been cut, their cattle houghed, and their houses plundered. This selection is rather an unfortunate one, as Limerick, since the year 1798, has been particularly free from any spirit hostile to the repose of society.

The city is now plentifully supplied with water, but it is not near so pure and excellent as it was about sixty years since: it was then supplied by a fine mountain stream called Temple-ogo water, collected into the basin in St. James's street: the river Liffey, dammed up above Island-bridge, now Sarah-bridge, also supplied the town with water; but the population increasing, these supplies were insufficient, and the proper officers contracted with the Grand Canal Company to mix their water with the city basin, and it became necessary to cut off part of the basin for the convenience of the canal, by which the beauty of the basin was quite destroyed. The canal-water passing over such

a variety of soil, may imbibe some impurities, which, however, cannot fail of being corrected by the quantity of rain which falls

The public buildings which embellish the capital are very magnificent; I shall attempt to describe them in the order in which I visited them. As I have mentioned the nobler parts of this city, it is with no little degree of pain that I step from the sunshine into the shade, to advert to the quarters of the poor, which I believe have no parallel in London, and demand the immediate attention of the government, which has, or ought to have been, most powerfully excited by the labours of the Reverend James Whitelaw, M. R. I. A. which were laid before the public in 1798, since which he assures me no steps have been taken to remove or assuage the misery he has depicted. The poorer parts of Dublin are pregnant with nuisances unusually destructive to health and comfort. In the ancient parts of the city the streets are generally very narrow, and the backyards of the houses very confined. The greater number of these streets, with their numerous lanes and alleys, are tenanted by little shopkeepers, the labouring poor, and beggars crowded together to a degree painful and affecting to reflection. Mr. Whitelaw states, that a single apartment in one of these truly wretched habitations lets from one to two shillings per week, and to lighten this rent, two, three, and even four families, become joint-tenants: he also mentions that a house in Braithwaite-street some years since, contained 108 souls; the present number of parochial schools it appears is eighteen.

Since Mr. Whitelaw wrote, a very fine charter-school has been established in Bagot-street, nearly on the banks of the canal, for sixty girls; to this school, in which the rooms are spacious and airy, girls, when of a proper age and state of improvement, are removed from the different schools belonging to the corporations in various parts of Ireland; here their education is finished, and from hence they are apprenticed to proper protestant masters and mistresses; an object which was found difficult of attainment in the distant parts of the kingdom, where protestants are comparatively few. As this school is under the immediate inspection of the governor, it is well conducted; and not only the moral and religious instructions of the children, but habits of industry, are deeply impressed.

SCARCITY OF SPECIE.

Upon entering a shop to purchase a pair of gloves, I observed, with no little degree of curiosity, that upon my presenting the money for them, my fair shopkeeper placed a little brass weighing-machine upon the counter, and weighed my shillings, all of which, as well as four or five more which I had in my purse, proved to be deficient in weight.

Nothing can impress a stranger more forcibly than the want of a mint coinage in Ireland, and (with an exception to certain portions in the north) the deplorable want of metallic specie throughout that country, to which may be added the exorbitant state of the exchange between the two countries.

The production of a guinea, in many parts of Ireland, excites as much curiosity as the display of a ruble or a sicca rupee would. Upon the arrival of the first of those precious coins in Dublin, it speedily finds its way either to the banker's counter, or to shops called specie shops, over the doors of which is written, "Guineas bought and sold here, and bank notes exchanged for guineas." Here a guinea, exchanged for a bank of Ireland note, was some time since resold at one pound three shillings, and one pound three shillings and sixpence: at present it is at one shilling, which is low. Small bank of England notes, from one to ten pounds, are at a premium proportionate to guineas, being equally useful to travellers. Larger bank of England bills bear the same price as merchants' bills on London.

The north of Ireland is principally supplied with guineas from Dublin, where they are now so scarce, notwithstanding their premium being low, that it is with difficulty they can be procured in quantities sufficient for travelling expences. The scarcity of this coin cannot be a matter of surprise, when, in addition to the act for restraining payments in specie, it appears that one person alone, between the years 1799 and 1804, purchased a million and a quarter, one million of which was sold for the purpose of exportation; and some of the absentee landlords still persist in making, as far as they can, their tenants pay their rent in specie.

The want of silver specie is more particularly lamentable, and embarrassing beyond imagination. Many of the great quantity of base shillings in circulation are not intrinsically worth four pence; but if they are of sufficient weight, or what is admitted to be so by tacit consent, viz. two pennyweights and sixteen grains and a half, and do not present too *brazen* an appearance of their *felonious* origin, they are permitted to descend into the till, to prevent a total stagnation of trade. Even these shillings are rare, and their rarity is frequently disastrous to business. After having been detained half an hour for change, I have more than once been told by the shopkeeper, with great regret, that he had sent to all his neighbours for change, but could not obtain any, and consequently the article purchased resumed its former seat upon the shelf. It is worthy of observation, that the mint shilling weighs three pennyweights and twenty-one grains, so that, even in *mere weight*, an Irish shopkeeper is compelled to submit to a deduction of rather more than one-third.

The first deficiency of silver may perhaps be attributable, in a

great degree, to the effusion of silver paper-notes during the great circulation of base shillings in the spring of 1804, the former of which the lower classes of people preferred; and, in consequence of this cheap substitution, the good silver was sent abroad as the best mode of remittance: after the re-appearance of silver, upon the subsidence of the rebellion, the interest of individuals induced them to export all the good shillings they could industriously procure, to England, where twenty-one of them could be exchanged for an English guinea, and in Ireland, no less a number would be taken for an Irish guinea note; the difference between which, in point of exchange, left a handsome profit to those who engaged largely in the traffic. Another, and an alarming cause of the baseness of the silver coin, is the facility with which it may be coined, and the frequent impunity extended to coiners on conviction. Coiners of shillings in Ireland, as well as in England, are punishable with death; but, notwithstanding several convictions of this crime, the only punishment that followed, as far as I could learn, for some years, was that of the pillory; and even that was rarely inflicted.

Our author is of opinion, that this scarcity of specie arises partly from the *absentees* carrying it with them to England. He adds, that in the north of Ireland there is a great disposition to resist the admission of paper. He then makes the following suggestions for remedying the evil.

As agriculture is increasing in Ireland, and as I trust every other national blessing will there increase also, an increased circulation is immediately, and will be more pressingly wanted. To remedy the exchange, several plans have been proposed; amongst others, it has been suggested for the bank of Ireland to invest a part of its capital in convertible securities, either in the hands of the bank of England, or of its own agents, or to take bills at a given rate of exchange, and by being drawers at a higher rate, to create a fund to draw upon, which would give it a controlling check over exchange operations; or to pay two, three, or four millions to its credit in the bank of England, to be drawn for or remitted at the pleasure of the bank of Ireland: but the most effective measure seems to be a consolidation of the two banks, under the title of the Imperial Bank, to be effected by a transfer of the stock of the bank of Ireland proprietors, to their credit in the bank of England, to be denominated imperial stock, and by an adoption on the part of the bank of England of all the engagements of the bank of Ireland, and by placing the united concerns of the two banks under the controul of Directors of the existing banks, in such numbers as might be agreed upon: a bank, as a branch of the Imperial Bank, to be kept up in Dublin for the payment of the paper of the mother bank, which should be made payable either in

England or Ireland, similar to the organization of the twenty local bank offices which radiate from the bank of Scotland.

THE LATE PARLIAMENT-HOUSE.

Amongst the public buildings, one of the first which I visited was the late Parliament-house, now converting into a national bank.

The parliament, in distant times, used occasionally to meet in the large halls of the religious houses. The parliament of 1383 assembled in the hall of the Carmelites, in White Friars-street. The noble pile which we are contemplating, was designed and built, as was generally supposed, but singular to relate not accurately known, by Mr. Castle: to the genius of the architect it does infinite honour. It was commenced in the year 1729, during the administration of Lord Carteret, under the inspection of Sir Edward Pearce, and Arthur Dobbs, Esq., successive engineers and surveyors general, and finished in 1739. The front recedes from the street, forming a court enclosed by iron rails. The centre consists of a portico of four columns, attached to a peristyle, forming three sides of a court, and advancing to the street, the ends of which are composed of lofty arches with piers: between are three quarter-columns, which rest on sub-plinths. The order is Palladio's Ionic, and of Portland stone, finished with an entablature, having a swelled frieze, over which are pediments of less dimensions than the portico. Between the plinths of the wings, and round the peristyle, is a flight of steps under the colonnade, the walls of which are decorated by a rustic basement, in which were the doors or the entrance: over the basement, in the front, is a range of windows. A dome once formed the centre of this noble pile, which was destroyed by fire. Strange to relate, the portico is not finished by a balustrade, nor is it surrounded either by statues or vases, the absence of which the eye perpetually laments.

That part of the building which was appropriated to the House of Lords, is situated, to great advantage, towards the east, in Westminster-street. This front is very elegant, and extends one hundred and thirty-five feet, and is constructed of the same stone as the old building. The portico was originally intended to have been of the Ionic order; but from the great fall of the ground, and other circumstances, the architect was compelled to alter his original design, and as the front was in a different street, there did not appear an actual necessity for the order to be similar. The present portico consists of six noble columns of the Corinthian order, thirty-six feet high, finished with its proper entablature, and a pediment, on which are placed three fine statues by Smith. The face of the building is decorated with a rustic base-

ment, exactly corresponding to the old front, over which are architraves, &c.; but the apertures, instead of windows, as in the old front, are adorned by niches for statues, having over them circular and square tablets alternately for inscriptions. The top of the building is finished with a balustrade.

The House of Lords was designed and executed by Mr. Gandon. The west front, in Foster-place, is constructed of the same materials as the other fronts, and is from the design of the same gentleman, with some few alterations, such as a pediment being substituted in place of Caryatic figures in the centre, and instead of a corresponding screen wall, as on the other side, as I was well informed, a colonnade was substituted at the suggestion of a gentleman who had the management of the business; and although a colonnade is always and every where a most beautiful piece of architecture, yet it must, in this instance, have been the principal instead of the subordinate feature, and must have attracted the eye from the principal front, and produced a very visible incongruity in the whole building. This stately pile is now undergoing great alterations, both externally and internally, in order to be appropriated to the use of a national bank.

The former House of Commons of Ireland was an octagon, surmounted by a dome, which rested upon columns of the Ionic order, that rose from an amphitheatrical spacious gallery, surrounded with a light and elegant balustrade of iron, within which strangers were admitted to hear the debates, and were conveniently accommodated. From the description which I had of this part of the edifice, it must have been second only to the hall of the Legislative Assembly at Paris, which is the most elegant senatorial building I ever beheld.

The hammer and the saw have not yet demolished the Irish House of Lords, the whole arrangement of which is nearly entire, and appears to have been constructed more with a view to convenience than elegance. The room was formerly embellished by a very fine picture, from the hand of that heroic, but wonderful genius, the late Barry, who was born at Cork. The subject was St. Patrick, the apostle of Ireland, preaching the glad tidings of salvation to Leogarius, the haughty pagan prince of that country.

Opposite to the grand front of the late Parliament-house is the General Post-office, where the ear is annoyed with newsmen crying out, "Two packets, two packets;" meaning that the news which they hold in their hands, contain the intelligence brought by that number of packets last arrived from England.

THE MAIL-COACHES, &c.

The mail-coaches run from Dublin to Cork, Belfast, Long-

ford, Limerick, Derry, Enniskillen, Waterford, Sligo, and Dunganon. There are also two mail-coaches established between Cork and Limerick: one passes by Fernoy, and the other by Charleville. There are three hundred and four post towns in Ireland; to two hundred of which the mails are conveyed six times in each week; and to one hundred and four, three times in each week. In the year 1801, there were but *four* mail-coaches in Ireland, viz. to Cork, Limerick, Belfast, and Longford. But that valuable part of the establishment, the importance of which manifests itself every day, has been considerably and *wisely* augmented, as it ensures an expeditious and secure conveyance to the public correspondence. The same system has been attempted to be extended to other parts of the kingdom; but the insufficiency of travelling intercourse, and the bad state of the roads, defeated the intentions of the postmasters-general, and forced the contractors, after becoming bankrupts, to resign their contracts.

COLLEGE AND LIBRARY.

My next visit was to the college of the holy and undivided Trinity, the students of which in their collegiate habits, give much vivacity to the city. This building forms to the eye one termination of Dame-street, and is in the shape of a parallelogram, extending in front three hundred feet, and in depth about six hundred, and is divided into two nearly equal squares, in which are thirty-three buildings of eight rooms each; the principal or west front is in the Corinthian order, and is built of Portland stone, as are all the buildings in the first square; this front is ornamented with pilasters and festoons, and considering how recent its construction is, viz. in 1759, I must own it did not favourably impress me. The most beautiful parts of this vast pile are the chapel and the theatre, designed by Sir William Chambers, which are opposite to and correspond with each other, and have each of them a handsome dome, and a front supported by four noble columns of the Corinthian order. The theatre is used for examinations and lectures. Its principal ornament is a monument erected to the memory of Provost Baldwin, which represents the figure of Learning weeping over the recumbent figure of that great man; the whole is chiseled out of one solid block, and is the masterly production of Mr. Hewetson, a native of Ireland, who left his country to settle in Rome. There are portraits of Queen Elizabeth, Lord Clare, Bishop Berkeley, Dean Swift, and Burke. This noble room, exclusive of a semicircular recess, thirty-six feet in diameter, is eighty feet long, forty broad, and forty-four high. The chapel opposite is very handsome. In the same area are the refectory and hall. The south side of the inner square is entirely occupied by the library, which is supported

by a piazza, more than two hundred feet long, which, as well as the front of the library, is built of very friable stone, and has rather a heavy effect. The inside is very commodious and magnificent, and will hold ninety thousand volumes; there is a gallery round it supported by pillars of Irish oak, the balustrades of which are adorned with busts in white marble, of Plato, Socrates, Aristotle, Cicero, Demosthenes, Homer, Shakspeare, Milton, Bacon, Newton, Locke, Boyle, Swift, Archbishop Usher, who contributed largely to the library, the Earl of Pembroke, Dr. Delaney, Dr. Lawson, Dr. Gilbert, who also bequeathed a great number of books, and Dr. Baldwin. The number of books and MSS. in this room is seventy thousand.

ANECDOTE OF DR. BARRETT.

At the farther end is another room, which is not yet opened, in which is the celebrated library of Baron Fagel from Holland: the books are not yet arranged; some of them are most beautifully illuminated. I had the pleasure of being attended by the librarian, Dr. John Barrett, one of the most learned men in Ireland. It is said that the doctor has scarcely ever passed the gates of the college for twenty years, and that he has perused most of the volumes of this vast library, which I think infinitely finer than the celebrated one at Upsala in Sweden. This valuable depot of learning owes its preservation to a Roman Catholic ecclesiastic of the name of Moore, who being a lover of letters, and having a liberal and expanded mind, when the fellows and scholars were forcibly expelled by the vulgar soldiers of James II. on account of a most honourable and firm resistance to a most foul and infamous mandamus, contrived to get himself nominated provost, and thus preserved this literary treasure from the ravages of those armed vandals. In the museum there is scarcely any thing worthy of notice. In the anatomy-house there is a curious collection of figures properly labelled, representing women in every stage of parturition, formed of wax upon real skeletons: they occupied the whole life of a very ingenious French artist, and as appears from a tablet, were purchased by Lord Shelburne, and by him presented to the university. This part of the building stands in a noble piece of ground, laid out in walks for the recreation of the students, which was formerly the grand parade of all the belles and beaux of the city. It was near the spot on which the college stands, that Henry the Second, when he went to Dublin, was lodged in a *palace of wicker-work and wattles*.

The number of students is about five hundred. Ever since the year 1511, various attempts were made to establish an university in Dublin, which were all rendered abortive till 1585, when Sir John Perrot, the Lord Deputy, endeavoured to raise

two universities out of the ruins of the cathedral of St. Patrick, which Loftus, Archbishop of Dublin, successfully opposed, deeming the alienation a sort of sacrifice; yet convinced of the necessity of such a foundation, he prevailed upon the mayor and citizens in common council to grant the Augustine monastery of All Saints within the suburbs for erecting a college. This grant was confirmed by Queen Elizabeth in 1591, who endowed it with lands in Ulster, and the stream of royal bounty was afterwards enlarged by James I. and his devoted successor, the former of whom presented to it the patronage of fifteen church-livings in the same province, to whom they escheated by the rebellion of O'Neill; and strange to relate, the college contains neither bust nor portrait of either of the latter royal patrons.

The government of the whole of this learned body is invested in the provost and senior fellows alone. The present provost is the reverend Dr. Hall, a divine distinguished for the depth of his learning, and the purity of his morals. The situation is worth about 1500*l.* per annum. The provost has also a casting voice upon all matters relating to the college. The average income of a senior fellow is about 800*l.* a year; and that of a junior fellow, including lodgings, commons, and lectures, about 100*l.* per annum, which is frequently increased by pupils to a considerable income. The fellows of Trinity college, by a stupid and unnatural clause in the college-charter, are restrained from marriage; or if they taste of conjugal happiness, their ladies are under the whimsical necessity of retaining their maiden names, until a dispensation is procured from the King.

The qualifications for a junior fellowship are most unreasonably numerous; and few can pass the ordeal of a three days' examination, which presupposes a knowledge of astronomy, mathematics, ethics, physics, logic, chronology, history, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and the whole circle of arts, sciences, and classics. Even Swift obtained his degree in this college *speciati gratiâ*.

IRELAND, THE ANCIENT SEAT OF SCIENCE.

An absurd fashion induced the Irish nobility and gentry to send their sons to Oxford and Cambridge; as if the seat of learning in which a Swift, a Burke, a Grattan, and a Curran, had been reared, were incapable of bestowing upon the mind an adequate proportion of erudition. This custom, which cannot be too much reprehended, is gradually submitting to a more enlarged and liberal mode of thinking. In ancient times, the venerable Bede says, "that many noble English, and others of inferior rank, were in the habit of going to Ireland to cultivate

letters; and many of those who attended the lectures of celebrated teachers were received by the Irish, and supplied with food, books, and instruction, without any recompence."

The President's house is adjoining the College, although it does not sufficiently appear to be a part of it. It is built of freestone, and the first story is embellished with icicle and rusticated work: upon the second is a range of pilasters of the Doric order, and in the centre is a Venetian window of the Tuscan order; before the house is a court, enclosed by a rusticated wall. The external appearance of the whole is heavy and gloomy.

The area of which the late Parliament-house, the new Club-house, a handsome edifice of hewn stone, and the College, form two sides, is called College-green, in the centre of which is an equestrian statue in brass of King William, upon a marble pedestal, raised by the citizens of Dublin to commemorate their deliverance from slavery under his auspices, on the 4th of November; on which day in every year a grand military spectacle, at which the viceroy *en gala* assists, is exhibited. This statue is barbarously painted, and the pedestal exhibits all the coarse association of colours which constitutes the most striking ornament of a glazier's shop.

DUBLIN SOCIETY.

I was much gratified by a visit to the Dublin Society of Arts, which is supported by the national spirit of individuals with occasional parliamentary aid. The whole is under the superintendence of General Vallancey, chief engineer of Ireland; author of the Vindication of the ancient History of Ireland; of a Prospectus of a Dictionary of the Irish Language, compared with the Chaldean and Arabic; and many other learned works: under whose auspices more immediately the society has attained a rank and consideration amongst the principal institutions of a similar nature in other countries. Its object is the promotion of those arts that are most propitious to the agriculture of that country. In the hall are several pillars from the Romans' Causeway. In the library are excellent imitations of bass-relievo by De Grey, a promising young Irish artist, from the subject of Ceres and Triptolemus; which bear a strong affinity in names and meaning to the Irish words *cairim* or *chirim*, to sow or plant, and *treab-talamh*, a plougher of the earth. In a long gallery are several good busts and casts, and at one end is a fine cast of Laocoon, presented to the society by David La Touche, junior, Esq. The original I have seen, as well as the divine statue of the Belvidere Apollo, in the imperial museum at Paris, and give the preference infinitely to the latter. Near the Laocoon is a model of the celebrated bridge of Schaffhausen over the Rhine, which,

notwithstanding the veneration which the French have frequently observed in all their campaigns for works of art, unfortunately fell a victim to the destroying fury of war.

In the Society there are three schools for drawing, engraving, and designing, to each of which fifty boys are admitted. I found several of the young students applying with activity and tolerable success. The drawing-master has a salary of one hundred pounds per annum, and devotes three hours to his pupils three days in the week. Every article necessary for drawing is provided at the sole expence of the Society.

Under the same roof is the Leskeamun Mineral Museum, in which there is a fine collection of fossils, all admirably arranged, and labelled, and catalogued. Amongst them I was much gratified by some very fine wood agates, shales of oak petrified, crystallized water, a pheasant's-eye agate spoon, a beautiful polished milk-white opal enclosing a drop of loose water, some fine spars, several curious petrifications of fish and plants: it is a memorable circumstance, inasmuch as it tends to fix our faith in divine narration, that the fish and plants so petrified are the native production of regions very remote from those in which they were discovered, and evidently illustrate the marvellous history of the Deluge. There is also a highly curious petrification of an arm, brought by General Vallancey from Gibraltar, where, as there are no monkeys, it is presumed that it must be a human one: previous to this discovery, animal petrification was much doubted.

In the Nummularium is some beautiful stained glass by Richard Hand, an Irish artist of much promise, coloured in 1794. In the Regnum Animale, amongst many precious shells, are specimens of the nautilus, from which wonderful tropical production the Romans first constructed their boats: it is a siphon throughout, and by its valves is capable of raising or depressing its self: Pope offered it the meense of his song:

“ Learn of the little nautilus to sail,
“ Spread the thin web— and catch the dawning gale.”

If I pass over Venus's cockle without paying my homage to the beautiful shell, may I never love or be loved! This is one of Nature's happiest efforts, and is exhibited as a great and precious rarity. There are also some horns which belonged to the moose deer, a race of animals which are now extinct in Ireland, dug out of bogs; several Irish minerals of great richness and beauty with which Ireland abounds, and specimens of gold from the mine of the Wicklow mountains.

The exhibition room is about seventy feet long, thirty broad,

and twenty-five high; the room was under repair, and excepting some dogs by Quadel, there was little in it worthy of notice. In the model room were a great number of ingenious models of mills, ploughs, &c. There are four professors attached to this society, viz.—1. of chemistry and mineralogy, at a salary of 300*l.* per annum, at present filled by Mr. Higgins.—2. Of botany, 300*l.* per annum, Mr. Wade.—3. Of experimental philosophy, 100*l.* per annum, Mr. Lynch.—4. Of the veterinary art, 50*l.* per annum, and house-rent allowed at 50*l.* Dr. Peete.

Each professor gives a course of lectures annually. The annual expenditure, including premiums, is 7000*l.* The society has a botanical garden, near a small village called Glassnevin, about one mile from Dublin, in which there is a large collection of indigenous plants, &c. The annual expenditure is about 1700*l.*; head-gardener's salary is 160*l.* per annum; three under-gardeners at 50*l.* each per annum, and twelve labourers, are constantly employed.

LADIES' LEGS.

As I am no botanist, I beg leave, says Mr. C. to quit shrubs and flowers for beauties of another and far more interesting nature. As I returned to my hotel, my eye naturally endeavoured to ascertain the truth of an assertion made by a writer, who has justly rendered himself obnoxious by his want of candour or of observation, in his celebrated critique upon the legs of the Irish ladies: the day was singularly favourable, for the wind was fresh and the atmosphere was clear, and the belles of Dublin were enjoying the beauty of the weather. With all the solemnity due to the subject, I am ready to swear, upon the altar of Cupid, or any other altar, that the ancles and feet which I saw were as tapering and as pretty as the ancles and feet of the belles of London, or even of Stockholm, although not so numerous as in the latter city, where they are to be found in great perfection; and that the assertion of the writer alluded to is a most foul and slanderous libel upon those beautiful portions of the female frame, and which, if time has not chilled the feelings of the libeller, ought for ever to be withheld from his sight. If pretty feet do not abound in Ireland, it is only because they do not abound in any other country: being a part of female beauty, it partakes of its rarity. Had this writer been making the tour of a county in England which I well know, and had he been present at the following scene which occurred there, he would, with equal precision, have made a memorandum, that all the women of England had thick legs. An English young lady just married, being much oppressed by the heat of a ball-room, fainted; a gentleman offered to assist her husband, who held her in his arms, to remove her into the open air, and stooped to

raise her legs from the ground; upon which the husband, with much truth and great calmness of consideration, said, "My dear sir, let me recommend you to leave them alone, for you will find them very heavy."

PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

In walking in the streets of Dublin, a stranger is much struck by observing so many churches without steeple, tower, or dome, the want of which renders this magnificent city of little consequence to the eye at a distance. I was much gratified with the Royal Exchange, which stands opposite to Parliament-street and Essex-bridge. It is nearly a square, with three fronts of Portland-stone in the Corinthian order, surmounted by a dome in the centre of the building. The principal front has a range of six columns with correspondent pilasters and entablature, which support a richly decorated pediment; and, in the same range, are two pilasters on each side. A spacious flight of steps ascends to the front, in which, between the columns, are three entrances, with elegant iron gates fastened to Ionic pilasters. Over the gates are three windows which light the coffee-room, and on each side are two others very handsomely decorated. The inside is singularly elegant. The dome is supported by twelve composite fluted columns, the entablature over which is very beautiful. The ceiling of the dome is embellished with stucco ornaments in the mosaic taste. Between two of the columns is a bronze statue of his present Majesty, said to have cost 700 guineas; its size and situation are not favourable to it. Every visible part of the inside of this building is of Portland-stone. There are several noble apartments above, which I now regret I did not visit; for this edifice, although too small for the comfortable accommodation of its visitors, is a beautiful specimen of the architectural taste of the country.

This building was designed by Mr. Cooley, commenced in the year 1769 during the viceroyalty of Lord Townsend, opened in the beginning of the year 1770, and cost about 50,000*l.* which sum was raised by lotteries, under the spirited and able management of the merchants and bankers of Dublin, to whose humanity, zeal, and munificence, the city is indebted for many of her public buildings, which would do honour to the taste and feelings of any country. Having thus spoken of the construction of this building, it is but just that I should make one comment upon the singular situation, not only of this elegant pile, but almost of every other public building of consequence in Dublin. Some of them project obliquely from the street of which they form a part of the side; yet, strange as it may appear, the effect is not unpleasant: the access to others is very bad and inconvenient; and there are some which, if they terminate a street, or the view

of one, present only three parts of their front to it: the latter is nearly the case with the Royal Exchange; however, this coy appearance is not without its comfort; for a foot-passenger is not obliged to contend with the mud of the middle of the streets, and to run the hazard of having his brains knocked out by the pole of a carriage, to obtain a full view of the building: by walking quietly and cleanly on the pavement, he will be able to command the centre; and, for this purpose, the closer he presses himself against the side of the street, and the nearer he advances towards the building, by so much the better will his eye be gratified: many of the streets are out of the line with those which form their continuation.

CATHEDRAL OF ST. PATRICK'S.

Genius, which consecrates whatever it touches, induced me to pay an early visit to St. Patrick's Abbey, the depository of the ashes of Swift: this venerable pile stands in one of the most squalid and filthy parts of the town, called the Poddle. The cathedral, in rainy seasons, is frequently laid twelve feet under water, and part of the inside is supported by props and scaffolding. It was built in 1190, upon the site of an ancient parochial church, said to have been erected by St. Patrick. There is only one choir, which sings at St. Patrick's, Christ's church, and the College chapel. It is a remarkably fine one, and consists of nine singers, the principal of whom are Sir John Stevenson, well known for his fine musical genius and exquisite composition, and Mr. Spray. Their labours are a little severe: they sing at the College at ten o'clock every Sunday; from thence they repair to Christ's church at half past eleven; afterwards, at three o'clock in the afternoon, they sing at St. Patrick's, and repair to Christ's church again at six.

SHOPKEEPERS.

Many wealthy people in Dublin owe their present flourishing condition to their ancestors having been benefited by Dean Swift's charitable bank, who out of the first five hundred pounds he could call his own, accommodated poor tradesmen with small sums from five to ten pounds, to be repaid weekly at two or four shillings without interest.

The deanry so celebrated for the residence of Swift has been pulled down, and another erected upon its site; and the palace of the Archbishop of Dublin is converted into barracks. Both these houses are situated in a close neighbourhood, with a collection of more mud, rags, and wretchedness, than London can exhibit in its most miserable quarters.

THE BLACK-ROCK, AND BAY OF DUBLIN.

From the Poddle I waded to my hotel. I mounted a jingle at the great jingle-stand, at the corner of Bagot-street; and, after passing several beautiful villas, I reached a town called the Black-rock, about four miles from Dublin: this town, like Richmond with respect to London, is the great summer Sunday attraction of the lower class of the good citizens of Dublin.

The proximity of this great capital to the sea gives it an enviable advantage in point of salubrity, as well as beauty. Whilst the inhabitants of most of the capitals are obliged, if health require a marine visit, to travel to a considerable distance, with much inconvenience to their business or pursuits, the Dublin people can, in their own shops, inhale the sea-breeze, and have it in their power, by rising a little earlier in the morning, to bathe in the sea, without any disarrangement of their occupations in life.

MARTELLO TOWERS, &c.

Before I approached the Black-rock, which lies to the south of the city, the bay of Dublin superbly opened to the view: it was a vast expanse of water, blue and placid as a mirror, rippling only as its flow increased upon the shores; and, at a distance, melting into the cloudless sky which it reflected. The sails of vessels, faintly discernible, alone directed the eye to the tender line of its horizon. In front, the hill of Howth re-appeared in all its majesty, the craggy sides of which the softening hand of distance seemed to have covered, as it were, with a russet robe; whilst, at the end of a long white line, projecting far into the sea, the Light-house rose, and resembled a figure of white marble rising out of the ocean: a more beautiful scene the eye never reposed upon. At low water, the sands along the Black-rock, which are very compact, afford a sea-side ride for several miles. Upon the sides of this coast is a long chain of equidistant martello towers, which, if they have been constructed to embellish the exquisite scenery by which they are surrounded, the object of building them has been successful; and the liberality of the late administration cannot be too much commended for having raised so many decorations of picturesque beauty at the cost of several thousands of pounds, to gratify the eyes of the passengers of every packet sailing in and out of the bay, at a period when the prosperity of the country is so forcibly illustrated by the trifling amount of its debt. I believe it would require the inflamed imagination of the hero of Cervantes, to discover one possible military advantage which they possess, placed as they are at such a distance, on account of the shallowness of

the bay, from the possibility of annoying a hostile vessel.—As it happened in this neighbourhood, I may here mention a little occurrence, which illustrates the habits of the lower orders of the people. At a house where I was, the cook had, for some time past, relieved the exertions of culinary toil by copious libations of that *liqueur*, so dear to the common Irish, commonly called whiskey, or “the crature:” this indulgence grievously disordered the arrangements of the kitchen. A service of *twenty-four years*, in a family too gentle to punish a frailty with severity, pleaded strongly for the offender; and, instead of being dismissed, she was sent to the lodge, under the care of the gate-keeper, until she had recovered her sobriety. Upon an appearance of penitence, her master sent her to her priest (for she was a Roman Catholic), who, at the next confession, granted her absolution, upon condition that she would abstain from whiskey for one whole year.

The Black-rock and its neighbourhood are filled with the most elegant country-houses, gardens, and plantations, more numerous, and far more beautiful and picturesque than the villas of Clapham-common, to which it may in some respects be compared, and the inhabitants are very elegant and sociable. The land is very rich and valuable, and lets *from ten to twenty-five pounds an acre*. Near the Black-rock, in Still-organ park, is a noble obelisk, upwards of one hundred feet high, supported by a rustic basement, having a double staircase on each side, leading to a platform which surrounds the structure. It was erected in the year 1739 by Lord Carysfort, for the purpose of affording employment and support to the neighbouring poor in a very severe winter. The view from it is superb; and its history, which is traditionary only (for, with the characteristic of true charity, it has no inscription to tell the name of its bountiful founder), excites in the mind of a stranger an impression highly favourable to the beneficent spirit of the Irish nation. In other places in Ireland, I have seen similar monuments, which have been raised from the same benevolent motive.

IRISH DRAWING-ROOMS.

In the neighbourhood of the Black-rock, and in other parts of Ireland, I saw a taste in building displayed, which is rarely exhibited in England. The drawing-room frequently opens through a large arch, elegantly festooned with drapery, into a green-house, or rather another room of glass, which is filled with rare plants and beautiful flowers, tastefully arranged, round which are walks finely gravelled, and at night the whole is lighted up by patent reflectors, and has a singularly beautiful appearance.

NEWGATE OF DUBLIN.

Upon my return to town, I visited the new gaol called Newgate, which is not shewn without a special order or letter from a magistrate. This building is erected on the north side of the city, the foundation-stone of which was laid by Lord Annaly, lord chief justice of the Court of King's Bench, on the 28th October, 1773, and the whole was designed and built by Mr. Coolcy, and cost about sixteen thousand pounds. It is a large quadrangular building, extending 170 feet in front, and about the same in depth: the sides are of lime-stone, and the front of mountain-stone rusticated, and at each external angle is a round tower. On the left side of the entrance is the guard-room, and to the right are the gaoler's apartments. A little beyond the gate-way is a door that leads to the press-yards; one of them, on the left hand, is for the men, from which there is a passage to the apartment in the east front, for those who turn evidence for the crown, and adjoining is a large room for the transports. The cells are in the felons' squares, communicating with the press-yards. There are twelve cells on each floor, with a staircase to each side. Before the cells is a gallery, terminated by the privies. In the prisoners' yards are two common halls, where they are allowed to walk, and to have fires in the winter. The condemned cells are below the east front. Water is conveyed to the different cells by an engine, from a cistern in the centre of the south side: and on each side of the cistern is the infirmary, in which, as in every other part of the building, the sexes are separated. Over the entrance is the chapel, which communicates with the "Gallows-room," in which is a windlass and machinery for raising or depressing the bodies of criminals when they are executed, which awful ceremony takes place on the outside of a grated window, even with the floor, in the centre of the front of the building, which opens upon a grating or platform of iron bars, projecting over the street, having a railing about breast-high: about nine feet above this platform is a long cross-bar of iron resting upon two projecting bars; over the centre of the cross-bar the axe of the law is represented in iron, and below it two pulleys are fixed, through each of which a cord runs from the windlass upon pulleys, and which cord is fastened to the fatal halter: upon a signal given, the executioner pulls a lever, which detaches the bolt of the grating or platform upon which the malefactor stands, who, upon its falling down upon its hinges, becomes suspended with a sudden jerk, which frequently shortens the agonies of death. Upon this machine only two criminals can be executed at the same time. As long as a mode of putting capital offenders to death, so cruel and pro-

crastinating as that of hanging, is resorted to, the construction of the fatal apparatus in the gaols in Dublin, and other parts of Ireland, appears to be the best for that purpose.

The prisoners in the Newgate of Dublin were comparatively few, and I did not see one of them on the felon side in irons; a circumstance which must be thought highly creditable to the humanity of those who have the superintendence of the prison

DUBLIN CASTLE.

I was somewhat disappointed in viewing the Castle, the town palace of the viceroy, and his court. This building was commenced in the year 1205, and finished in 1213, under the auspices of Henry de Londres, Archbishop of Dublin and Lord Justice of Ireland: it afterwards went to decay, and the chief governors were obliged to keep their court at St. Sepulchre's, Kilmainham, and St. Thomas's Abbey. History says that in the reign of John it was a place of considerable strength, moated and flanked with towers. It was not used for the viceroy's palace till the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The upper castle-yard, the principal part of the building, where the viceregal apartments are, is an oblong square, and much resembles, in gloom and unroyal-like appearance, the palace of St. James's. In the southern range is a neat edifice, called the Bedford Tower, having a front decorated with a small arcade of three arches, surmounted by an octagon steeple, with a cupola. This tower fronts the viceroy's apartments, and is connected with the building on each side by two gates, upon which are two handsome statues of Justice and Fortitude. These statues are worthy of notice, more on account of their rarity, than their superior excellence; for Dublin is certainly very defective in statuary. Birmingham Tower, at the western extremity of the Castle, remained until the year 1775, when it was taken down, and rebuilt in 1777, and is now called Harcourt Tower. It was formerly a state prison; at present the ancient records of Ireland are kept in it. The keeper of these archives in the viceroyalty of the Earl of Wharton was his secretary, the celebrated Addison, for whom the salary of the office was raised from 10*l.* to 500*l.* per annum. I did not see any thing worthy of much admiration in the viceregal apartments. The council-chamber is a good-sized room, but little embellished; and the throne is not so shabby as some of those seats of majesty to be seen in the palaces in England. St. Patrick's Hall is a noble room, and its ceiling has been lately painted with appropriate allegorical subjects by an ingenious artist named Waldre. The parliament and courts of justice were formerly held in the Castle till the rebellion of 1641, and from thence to the Restoration. In the

building containing the grand entrance to the Castle, are the apartments of the master of the ceremonies, and other officers of state.

It was at the gate of the Castle over which the statue of Justice appears, during the tumults in Thomas-street in the year 1803, that the amiable daughter of the upright and enlightened Lord Kilwarden presented herself to the guard stationed there, half distracted with the horror of having seen her father and cousin, the reverend Mr. Wolfe, torn from their carriage by a set of desperadoes, and mortally pierced by her side with pikes. For some time the soldier on duty, observing her without shoes, covered with mud, her frenzied eye and faltering voice, regarded her as a maniac. It was the first information of this insurrectional movement which the government received, or having received, regarded. In the lower Castle-yard are the treasury and other offices, and near them are buildings for keeping military stores, and an arsenal and armory for 40,000 men.

The style of living of the viceroy combines ease with majesty. His levees are entirely governed by his will and pleasure. He has generally one morning levee in the week, at which the viceroy, and those who have the honour of being introduced to him, appear in morning dresses. Upon state occasions he moves with body guards, and is attended by his pages, aide-de-camps, and officers of his household. His principal place of residence is in the Phoenix-park, distant about one mile and a half from Dublin.

THE BRIDGES IN DUBLIN.

After quitting the Castle, as the day proved very fine, I mounted a jingle, and took an airing on the circular road which surrounds the city, and has been made on the site of the old Danish wall, formerly erected for the protection of the capital: the view almost every where on this superb road is delightful, and well worthy of a stranger's early attention. The bridges which cross the river Liffey at Dublin, of which there are seven, are very handsome; as they very soon attracted my notice, it may be as well to describe them all here. The most beautiful is Sarah's bridge, so called from Sarah, Countess of Westmoreland, who on the 22d June, 1795, laid its foundation-stone; it stands near the Phoenix-park, at the western end of the city, has one arch, extends 360 feet, and is 38 feet broad: the arch is an ellipse, whose span measures 104 feet, which is 12 feet higher than the Rialto at Venice: the key-stone is 22 feet above high-water mark; and its breadth on the top within the parapets is 38 feet, including two flagged foot-ways of six feet on each side. Near this bridge stood Island-bridge, built by

Queen Elizabeth in 1577; and hence Sarah bridge is called by some of the inhabitants Island-bridge. Barrack-bridge, formerly called Bloody-bridge, was built in 1671, being originally constructed of wood; four persons lost their lives in endeavouring to pull it down: it is not worthy of farther notice. Queen's-bridge stands upon the scite of Arran-bridge, and was finished in 1768. It has three arches, is 140 feet in length, with flagged foot-passages, stone balustrades, and ornamental decorations, in a style of considerable taste; the whole was executed under the inspection of General Vallancey. The old bridge is a crazy, dirty, wretched pile of antiquity, and was rebuilt in 1428; the sooner it shares the fate of its former hoary brother, called Ormond-bridge, which fell before the floods of December 1803, the better. Essex-bridge is very beautiful; it was commenced in 1753, under the direction of Mr. George Semple: it is Westminster-bridge in miniature, which, upon a reduced scale, it resembles in every stone. The spans of the middle arches are to each other as three to five; their length as one to four.

Carlisle-bridge stands in a noble situation, and concentrates in one view the finest parts of Dublin; it has three arches, the centre is 48 feet wide the length of the whole is 150 feet, and its breadth between the balustrades 60 feet, which is wider by 10 feet than Westminster-bridge. The approach to it on either side is gradual. The arches are executed with bright mountain-granite, and the cornice balustrade at top, with part of the piers, are composed of Portland-stone, and form a contrast by their different tints. The structure is a noble one, and the whole was designed and executed by Mr. Gandon, to whose taste and genius the city is much indebted. The highly-merited celebrity of this gentleman induces me, with great deference, to observe, that I think this bridge would be improved by the removal of the four obelisks, which are placed at each end of the sides as ornaments. From this bridge the passenger has a fine view of the shipping and Custom-house; and from its south, the portico of the House of Lords and the College present a magnificent appearance, and resemble the superb architectural view at the entrance of the Linden-walk in the beautiful city of Berlin, looking towards the opera-house.

The river is seldom enlivened by the appearance of boats: there is a ferry-boat which plies near the ruins of Ormond-bridge. It is in contemplation, I am informed, to embank the sides of the river, through the city, with granite; should this be accomplished, it will be a beautiful improvement, and may perhaps lead to the river being frequented by pleasure-boats.

The largest square in Dublin is St. Stephen's-green, which

is nearly an English mile in circumference. It is a fine meadow, walled and planted with a double row of trees, but is disfigured, by a dirty ditch formed on every side, the receptacle of dead cats and dogs. In the centre is an equestrian statue of George the Second, by Van Nort. The houses on each side are most of them very noble buildings; their want of uniformity, owing to the vast space of the area, is not objectionable. If this square were handsomely railed round and planted, and the ditch filled up, it would be one of the most magnificent in Europe.

Mr. Carr continues at some length to describe the hospitals and other subordinate public buildings: his account will be found interesting by the future tourist in Ireland. On the subject of posting he observes, that the regulations are nearly as good as in England, far better than on the continent; and declares that the well known caricature published in London, to represent Irish posting, has no foundation in fact.

The laws of posting in Ireland require that one shilling shall be paid if one or two persons engage a chaise; but if three, then eighteen-pence per Irish mile. Eleven Irish miles are equal to fourteen English. A *lucky* mile means a long one; for the Irish miles vary not a little: why so called I could not learn. "Now, Pat! mind you drive the gentlemen *beautiful*," were the farewell words of the waiter at our hotel, upon which Pat drove us furiously over the stones; whilst the iron steps within, but not fastened, kept dancing all the way to a clatter which rendered our tongues useless, and our cars burthensome, until we had passed the barrier, which was raised, with many others, at the entrance of the city during the rebellion. Soon after which, we saw a beautiful country, and one of the finest broad and level roads I ever travelled upon. Our first stage was to Bray. Our route lay through fine plantations, embellished with elegant houses, and fields and meadows, in which every symptom of good husbandry appeared.

We passed through Dundrum, a very pretty village about three miles and a half from Dublin. Near the four-mile stone is Moreen, a very picturesque situation: it is remarkable for a desperate battle which was fought some centuries since by two neighbouring families, who, having satiated their revenge, very piously erected a church in the valley where the battle was fought; but whether in expiation of their infuriated rage, or to perpetuate the history of it, ancient story does not tell. Not far from Moreen, is the castle and church of Kilgobbin. The frequent recurrence of names of places beginning with *kill*, is not a little alarming to a stranger in Ireland, more especially if he be under the influence of those stupid prejudices which have been excited

against that country. I have just enumerated, in my memory, no less than forty-nine of those *kill* places.

THE SCALP.

The first grand and extraordinary object which we met with was a chasm which some vast convulsion of nature seemed to have formed, by having forced its way through a mighty mountain, and divided it into elevated ridges of detached grey rock and massy stones, which, projecting in a variety of forms, looked ready to roll down, with ruin and havoc in their train, into the valley below, through which the road turned. This wonderful aperture is called the Scalp. Between its craggy slopes, a contrasted level country, well cultivated, gradually swelling at a distance, and closed by the mountains called the Sugar-loaves, pushing their dusky tops into the skies, presented an interesting and very singular view.

As we descended to the beautiful village of Inniskerry, on one side the eye reposed upon rich meadows; on the other, a slope of trees presented a compact shade. Before us, as the road, enlivened by passing peasants, turned over a picturesque bridge, a neat farm-house presented itself; and a village-school, standing in the bottom of the valley, just peeped with its upper windows above the level: whilst a hill, lightly clothed with young wood, extended a rich screen behind. Expressions of delight burst at the same moment from both of us: it was Auburn, in all its pristine loveliness.

As we wished to walk through the Dargle, we alighted from our chaise near a beautiful cottage upon the domains of Lord Viscount Powerscourt, and ordered our driver to go to the principal entrance of the Dargle, about two miles distant. We had scarcely measured one hundred feet from the cottage, before, as we stood upon an eminence, a new world of rural beauty opened upon us, of rich vallies and mountains covered with wood, melting into air; whilst below a serpentine river glistened in the sun, until it lost itself in the Dargle, whither we followed its course. The Dargle is a deep glen, or narrow valley, of about a mile in length: at the entrance where we approached it, opposite to us a beautiful little pleasure-cottage peeped over the ridge of one of the hills which form the green-breasted sides of this glen; it was just discernible in a little plantation which crowned the precipice upon which it stood: this elegant and romantic little summer retreat was raised after the tasteful design of Mrs. Grattan, the lady of the illustrious member of that name, to whom it belongs. As we descended by the paths which have been cut through the woods, new beauties opened upon us. The hill, on the sides of which we stood, and its

opposite neighbour, were covered with trees, principally young oak, projecting with luxuriant foliage from masses of rock half green with moss. Here, concealed by over-arching leaves, the river, like fretful man in his progress through this unequal world, was scarcely heard to ripple; there it flashed before the eye again, as if in anger at its concealment, rolled impetuously over its rocky bed, and roared down a craggy declivity; a little further, having recovered its calmness, it seemed to settle for a while, resembling, in sullen silence and placidity, a dark mirror; then, never destined to long tranquillity, it proceeded, and was again lost in arches of foliage, under which it murmured and died upon the ear.

It was in this spot, under the green roof of native oaks starting from their rocky beds, sequestered from the theatre of that world upon which he afterwards sustained so distinguished a character, that Grattan, when a very young man, addressed the tumultuous waters as his auditory, and schooled himself, like Demosthenes, in that eloquence which was destined to elevate the glory of Ireland with his own.

We lingered for some time in a rustic temple, whose back and seats were formed of intertwisted branches, softened by moss, and whose arches opened upon one of the most favoured spots of the Dargle: it seemed to be suspended, like an aeronautic car, from some vast impending oaks which spread far over it an umbrella of leaves.

We ascended the Lover's-leap, a vast high grey rock, whose base is concealed by sloping trees; it rises higher than any other object, and commands a very extensive view of this verdant scenery, which travellers, who have visited Italy, pronounce to be equal to any spot in that benign climate.

We quitted this scene with mingled emotions of delight and regret, and entering our chaise at the principal gate, proceeded through a rich and romantic country to the

TOWN OF BRAY.

This town, which is near the sea, has a very neat and respectable appearance: it is about eleven miles from Dublin, and stands on the verge of the counties of Dublin and Wicklow, which, as well as the town, are divided by a river abounding with excellent trout. This place has two annual fairs, at which black cattle and sheep, and large quantities of frieze and flannel, are sold; and is much resorted to during the seasons for drinking goats-whey and sea-bathing. It has a church, a Roman Catholic chapel, good barracks, several lodging houses, and, in its neighbourhood, are several elegant country seats. The post-chaises which belong to the principal inn here, are the best in Ireland, and

are inscribed, in great letters, with the word "Quinbray," which I thought was the name of the owner; but, upon enquiry, I found that he was only entitled to the first half, and that the other half of the word belonged to the town.

Here we took a fresh chaise, and proceeded to Newry bridge, where we found an old, but very comfortable inn. Our fish, meat, wine, beds, and waiters, all were good. This spot we made our head-quarters, and strongly recommend them to every future Wicklow wanderer. The first place we visited was Rosanna, the seat of Mrs. Tighe: the house appears to be a comfortable brick mansion; the grounds, abounding with the most beautiful arbutuses, holly, and ash-trees, are perfectly Arcadian.

From Rosanna we proceeded to Glenmore castle, through the most rich and romantic country. The castle, the seat of Francis Synge, Esq. has not yet received the hoary tints of time; some of its battlements were constructing at the time of my visit; but when it is completed, and well coloured by the elements, it will be a fine object. At a little distance it seems to impend over a vast abrupt precipice, from which it commands a superb view of the country, and the entrance of the celebrated Devil's glen, into which we descended through a well-planted shrubbery.

THE DEVIL'S GLEN

Is a valley, the bottom and sides of which are composed of rocks: one side was till lately covered with trees, principally oak; the other was always much denuded, which must have afforded a fine contrast. At the further end, the river Vartrey, after violent rains, falls with astonishing fury from a height of 100 feet, and runs through the glen amongst the rocks that compose its bottom. During the rebellion, these unfrequented depths frequently afforded shelter and concealment to its routed followers. Groups of such figures must have augmented the gloomy grandeur of the scene, and rendered it a subject worthy of the pencil of a Salvator.

It was here, and in the neighbouring mountains, that Dwyer, a rebel chieftain, as celebrated as three-fingered Jack, contrived to elude the hot and persevering pursuit of justice for a period almost unexampled. Although the virtue of singular incorruptibility was displayed in a bad cause, yet it loses nothing of its intrinsic value on that account. The remuneration offered by the government for the discovery of this daring chief, who so long hovered near the capital after his followers had been routed and reduced, was very great, and presented a temptation to betray, which in another country would scarcely have been

resisted; but wherever this arch-ruffian avowed himself, and claimed the protection of hospitality, his person was held sacred; and, in the midst of rags and penury, a bribe, which would have secured independence to the betrayer, was rejected with scorn.

MAGNANIMITY OF A PEASANT.

The following little anecdote will prove that magnanimity is an inmate of an Irish cabin. During the march of a regiment, the Honorable Captain P——, who had the command of the artillery baggage, observing that one of the peasants, whose car and horse had been pressed for the regiment, did not drive as fast as he ought, went up to him and struck him: the poor fellow shrugged up his shoulders, and observed, there was no occasion for a blow, and immediately quickened the pace of his animal. Some time afterwards, the artillery officer having been out shooting all the morning, entered a cabin for the purpose of resting himself, where he found the very peasant whom he had struck, at dinner with his wife and family: the man, who was very large and powerfully made, and whose abode was solitary, might have taken fatal revenge upon the officer; instead of which, immediately recognizing him, he chose the best potatoe out of his bowl, and presenting it to his guest, said, “There, your honour, oblige me by tasting a potatoe, and I hope it is a good one; but you should not have struck me a blow is hard to bear.”

An Irish cabin, in general, is like a little antediluvian ark; for husband, wife, and children, cow and calf, pigs, poultry, dog, and frequently cat, repose under the same roof in perfect amity. A whimsical calculation sometime since ascertained, that in 87 cabins, there were 120 full grown pigs, and 47 dogs. The rent of a cabin and potatoe plot in the county of Wicklow and neighbourhood, is from one to two guineas: the family live upon potatoes and buttermilk six days in the week, and instead of “an added pudding,” the Sabbath is generally celebrated by bacon and greens. In those parts I found the potatoes to be 8s. 4d. the barrel (twenty stone to the barrel) and three quarts of buttermilk for a penny. The price of labour was 6½d. per day.

Insufficiency of provision, which operates so powerfully against marriage in England, is not known or cared about in Ireland; there the want of an establishment never affects the brain of the enamoured rustic. Love lingers only until he can find out a dry bank, pick a few sticks, collect some furze and fern, knead a little mud with straw, and raise a hut about six feet high, with a door to let in the light and let out the smoke; these accomplished, the happy pair, united by their priest, enter their sylvan dwelling, and a rapid race of chubby boys and girls,

soon proves by what scanty means life can be sustained and imparted.

THE POTATOE.

Upon an average, a man, his wife, and four children, will eat 37lbs. of potatoes a day. A whimsical anecdote is related of an Irish potatoe. An Englishman seeing a number of fine florid children in a cabin, said to the father: "How do your countrymen contrive to have so many fine children?" "*By Jasus, it is the potatoe, Sir,*" said he.

The mode of planting potatoes is as follows: The potatoe is cut into several pieces, each of which has an eye: these are spread on ridges of about four or five feet wide, which are covered with mould, dug from furrows on each side, of about half the breadth of the ridge. When they dig out the potatoes in autumn, they sow the ridge, immediately before digging, with bere, and shelter the crop in a pit, piled up so as to form a sloping roof. Potatoes are said to be very propitious to fecundity.

Poor as the cabin is, do not, reader! think that hospitality and politeness are not to be found in it. The power of shewing these qualities, to be sure, is very slender; but if a stranger enters at dinner-time, the master of the family selects the finest potatoe from his bowl, and presents it, as a flattering proof of welcome courtesy.

After a day of high gratification, we returned to Newry-bridge, where we sat down to a couple of delicious fowls, for which, as for poultry of every description, and for its veal, this county is very famous: we had also trout, and excellent wine, particularly port.

In Ireland excellent wine is to be had in the poorest public houses. A friend of mine travelling in that country, came late at night to a little inn, which was so wretched that it had not a single bed for him or his servant, yet, to his surprise, the ragged host produced him a bottle of very fine claret.

After a refreshing repose in clean beds, we rose to renew our rambles. At our breakfast we had excellent honey and eggs; the latter the Irish have certainly the merit of having introduced to the English tables.

Under a cloudless sky, we proceeded to Cronroe, about two miles from Newry, the seat of Isaac Ambrose Eccles, Esq., a gentleman of fortune, of considerable classical acquirements, and of the most amiable private character; this gentleman has edited three of Shakspeare's dramas, upon a *liberal* and extensive plan. The great natural curiosity of Cronroe is a vast rock, which rises perpendicular from some beautiful woods behind the

houses, to the top of which we ascended, and enjoyed an exquisite prospect of an extensive, undulating, and highly cultivated country, and the sea. One part of the view was enlivened by the busy movements of a crowded fair.

After a display of hospitality, which in Ireland is no novelty, although always charming, we parted with our enlightened host, and proceeded to our chaise, which waited for us in the fair. Here all was bustle; shoes, stockings, hats, pigs, sheep, and horses, were exposed for sale to the best advantage. It is always a source of pleasure to listen to the conversation of the lower Irish; at these places, wit, drollery, or strength of expression, is sure to be the reward of it. "I am very bad, Pat," said one poor fellow, rubbing his head, to another. "Ah! then may God keep you so, for fear of being worse," was the reply.

The approach to Rathdrum, our next stage, was very beautiful: the town has nothing in it worthy of remark.

In order to view completely the beauties of Avondale, formerly the residence of that great patriot the late Sir John Parnell, now inhabited by Lady Wicklow, we ordered our chaise to a spot a few yards out of the high road to Arklow, called the Meeting of the Waters, and walked through this exquisite demesne, which is about a mile beyond Rathdrum: it stands on the banks of the river Avoca, or Avonmore, which signifies, "the great winding stream." The sloping banks, curving with the river, are clothed with a full rich coppice, occasionally ennobled to the view by scattered oak and ash, of stately growth. The mansion is modern and handsome; in front is a beautiful lawn, dotted with clumps of trees gently sloping from a hill crowned with fine beech and spruce firs; there is great variety in the scenery; the rich verdure of meadows or pasture is frequently contrasted with grey romantic rocks, of a great height, covered with old oak, the roots of many of which, from their beds, project one hundred feet perpendicular over the tops of others; whilst the gentle current of the river is frequently broken into foam and cataract, by opposing rock and shattered granite, half-covered with moss. Our walk extended near three English miles through the woods, and every step afforded us some fresh gratification.

When we passed the gate that led out of Avonmore, a new scene of enchantment presented itself at "the Meeting of the Waters," and rivetted us in silent admiration. It was a scene of vallies, whose lofty sides were covered with the most luxuriant foliage, presenting a compact slope of leaves through which neither branch nor trunk of tree could be seen. Upon the top of one of these umbrageous mountains, a banqueting-room or

tower arose, the casement of which brightened by the sun; whilst below, dimly seen through overarching beech-trees, a confluence of streams mingled with the river under the blue mist of approaching evening.

Our road lay through the same exquisite scenery, the effect of which was not injured by the abrupt appearance of two mountains of copper-mine which lie nearly opposite to each other; the savage sterility of these mountains varied by the green, red, and yellow stains of their vitriolic streams, which scantily dripped down their sides, presented a striking contrast to the soft verdure and luxuriant foliage which marked the termination of their desolate features.

By the time we reached Arklow, the night had closed in upon us. Our inn was not the most comfortable in the world, but tolerable; one side of the lower part of it was occupied by a shop, for the sale of groceries, wine, whisky, &c. This union of the characters of shop and inn-keeper, I found very frequent in Ireland. Here we got excellent wine. The waiter assured us that the beds, for we dined in a double-bedded room, were well aired, and added "for one gentleman slept in both of them last night." I thought I had caught a bull for the first time; but upon a moment's reflection I found that the gentleman, after sleeping in one bed, might have been disposed to try the other, and so it proved.

MILITARY DISAPPOINTMENT.

A short distance from the town, we passed by the spot where a very bloody and decisive battle was fought on the 9th of June 1793, against the rebels, who were 27,000 strong, and who were routed, with the loss of 1000 men left dead on the field.

A brief account of the particulars, and of a very extraordinary character, who shone in all the splendour of high daring, will, I am sure, be interesting to my readers, as related by the Reverend James Gordon. After speaking of the arrival at Arklow of the Durham fencibles, the rebels being in great force near it, he says, "A few hours after, one of those ludicrous incidents occurred, which, amid the calamities of war, serve to exhilarate the spirits of military men. Two of the officers of this regiment, passing by the house of Mr. O'Neill, in Arklow, where General Needham was quartered, and where a great breakfast was prepared for the general and his guests, were mistaken by a servant for two of the suite, and informed that breakfast was ready for them and their associates. This intelligence being communicated, the Durham officers came instantly in a body, and devoured the whole breakfast." One of them, the writer states, remained behind to settle with the drivers of the carriages in which the regiment had travelled from Dublin, and upon him devolved the

unpleasant situation of hearing the complaints of the general and his officers, who arrived soon after, and found all their breakfast vanished. He then proceeds :

“ In some hours, more serious objects engaged the attention of the troops. The rebels, who, after the defeat of Walpole's army on the 4th of June, had wasted their time in burning the town of Carnew, in trials of prisoners for Orangemen, the plundering of houses, and other acts of the like nature, at length collected their force at Gorey, and advanced to attack Arklow on the 9th, the only day in which that post had been prepared for defence. The number probably amounted to 27,000, of whom near 5000 were armed with guns, the rest with pikes, which gave them in some points of view the appearance of a *moving forest*, and they were furnished with three serviceable pieces of artillery. The troops posted for the defence of this, at that time, most important station, consisted of 1,600 men, including yeomen, supplementary men, and those of the artillery. The rebels attacked the town on all sides, except that which is washed by the river. The approach of that column which advanced by the sea-shore was so rapid, that the picket-guard of yeomen cavalry, stationed in that quarter, was in extreme danger : a party of the rebels having entered and fired what is called the fishery, a part of the town on that side, composed of thatched cabins, before they could effect their escape, so that they were obliged to gallop through the flames, while the main body of this rebel column was at their heels. So great was the terror of this troop of yeomen, that most of them stopped not their flight till they had crossed the river, swimming their horses, in great peril of drowning, across that broad stream. The farther progress of the assailants was prevented by the charge of the regular cavalry, supported by the fire of the infantry, who had been formed for the defence of the town, in a line composed of three regiments, with their battalion artillery, those of the Armage and Cavan militia, and the Durham fencibles. The main effort of the rebels, who commenced the attack near four o'clock in the evening, was directed against the station of the Durham, whose line extended through the field in front of the town to the road leading from Gorey. As the rebels poured their fire from the shelter of ditches, so that the opposite fire of the soldiery had no effect, Colonel Skerrett, the second in command, to whom Major-general Needham, the first in command, had wisely given discretionary orders to make the best use of his abilities and professional skill, commanded his men to stand with ordered arms, their left wing covered by a breast-work, the right by a natural rising of the ground, until the enemy, leaving their cover, should advance to an open attack. This open attack

was made three times in most formidable force, *the assailants rushing within a few yards of the cannons' mouths*; but they were received with so close and effective a fire, that they were repulsed with great slaughter in every attempt. The Durham were not only exposed to the fire of the enemy's small arms, but were also galled by their cannon. A piece of these, directed at first much too high designedly, by a soldier taken prisoner by the rebels, of the name of Shepherd, appointed to manage the gun, was afterwards levelled so by Esmond Kyan, a rebel chief, that it broke the carriage of one of the battalion guns, and obliged the left wing of the regiment to shift its ground, by advancing twenty paces, to avoid being enfiladed by the shot. One of the balls carried away the whole belly of a soldier, who yet lived some minutes in that miserable condition, extended on the ground, and stretching forth his hands to his associates." The historian mentions, that General Needham, after riding from post to post, exposed to the enemy's fire, at last came to the determination that a retreat would be the most prudent measure, in the then posture of affairs. The resolution of Colonel Skerrett, on that occasion, saved Arklow, and in the opinion of the writer, the kingdom.

CHURCH-MILITANT FANATICS.

The reply of the colonel to the general, when addressed on the subject of a retreat, was in words to this effect: "We cannot hope for victory otherwise than by preserving our ranks: if we break, all is lost; and for the spirit which I have seen displayed at this awful crisis by the Durham regiment, I can never bear the idea of its giving ground." This magnanimous answer was decisive; and the rebels retired in despair, after having been repulsed in a most furious assault, in which Father Michael Murphy, priest of Ballycannoo, was killed by a cannon-shot, within thirty yards of the Durham line, while he was leading his people to the attack.

Another famous fanatic, Father John Murphy, who figured away in the rebellion, was also supposed to be bullet-proof. This man's journal is curious; it was found on the field of battle at Arklow by Lieutenant-Colonel Bainbridge, of the Durham fencible infantry, and sent by him to General Needham.

"Saturday night, May 26, at 6 A. M., 1798, began the republic of Ireland, in Bonlavogue, in the county of Wexford, barony of Gorey, and parish of Kilcormick, commanded by the Reverend Doctor Murphy, parish-priest of the said parish in the aforesaid parish, when all the Protestants of that parish were disarmed; and, among the aforesaid, a bigot, named Thomas Bookey, who lost his life by his rashness, 26. From thence

came to Oulart, a country village adjoining, when the republic attacked a minister's house for arms, and was denied of; laid siege immediately to it, and killed him and all his forces; they the same day burned his house, and all the Orangemen's houses in that and all the adjoining parishes in that part of the country. The same day a part of the army, to the amount of 104 of infantry, and two troops of cavalry, attacked the republic on Oulart-hill, when the military were repulsed with the loss of 112 men, and the republic had four killed, and then went to a hill called Corrigna, where the *republic* encamped that night, and from thence went to a town called Camolin, which was taken without resistance; and the same day took another town and *sate* of a bishop. At three in the afternoon, the same day, they laid siege to Enniscorthy, when they were opposed by an army of 700 men; then they were forced to set both ends of the town on fire, and then took the town in the space of one hour, and then encamped on a hill near the town, called Vinegar-hill.

“ BRYAN BULGER,

“ DARBY MURPHY, his hand and pen.”

“ Dated this 26th.”

Some of the rebels who escaped this bloody conflict by which Ireland was saved, in their forcible mode of expressing themselves, said, speaking of the slaughter produced by the soldiery amongst them: “ *By Jusus, they mowed us down by the acre.*”

ANECDOTE OF MILITARY DISCIPLINE.

As it is always a gratifying circumstance to find the military in times of trouble, when their services were wanted, uniting humanity with duty, I cannot restrain the pleasure of inserting what Mr. Gordon has said upon a particular instance of this union. “ On the arrival of the Marquis of Huntley, however, with his regiment of Scottish Highlanders, in Gorey (near Arklow), the scene was totally altered. To the immortal honour of this regiment, its behaviour was such as, if it were universal amongst soldiers, would render a military government amiable. To the astonishment of the (until then miserably harrassed) peasantry, not the smallest trifle, even a drink of buttermilk, would any of these Highlanders accept without the payment of at least the full value. General Skerrett, Colonel of the Durham fencible infantry, who succeeded the generous Marquis in the command of that post, observed so strict a discipline, that nothing more was heard of military depredation.”

ARKLOW CASTLE.

We saw nothing particularly worthy of notice at Arklow

except the castle, which is ancient and in ruins. The morning after our arrival we crossed the bridge, which has nineteen arches, through which the Avoca flows into the sea, which is close adjoining : it was low water, and a number of fishing-vessels lay on the yellow sands. The learned Bishop Pococke, who has distinguished himself for his Travels in the East, has observed that Arklow, with its sands, steeps, and glens, seen from the promontory, where the prospect has the best effect, presents a striking resemblance to the hill of Mount Sion, at Jerusalem.

After a most delightful drive we crossed a bridge, and returned to the road over which we had passed the preceding day ; and, alighting from our chaise, climbed to the summit of one of the copper-mountains, where we saw several hollow squares, like baths, partly filled with divisions, in which plates of iron were deposited, the vitriolic particles of which are attracted by a stream, strongly impregnated with vitriolic water which flows into them, and leaves a sediment of copper. At this mine there were no smelting-houses. I was informed that this mine was not very productive, and is very deleterious to the fish for six miles in the river, which flows in the valley to the sea : indeed, I was informed that a very fine salmon-fishery at Arklow was completely destroyed by the poisonous stream of this mine.

GOLD MINE OF WICKLOW.

As the working of the once celebrated gold mine, which lies at the foot of the mountain Croghan, in this neighbourhood, has for some time past been upon the decline, we did not think it would repay the trouble of visiting it. The discovery of this mine for some time elated the breast of every Irishman : his country promised to become another Peru, and the most precious treasures below seemed ready to augment the prodigal beneficence of nature above. The shepherd left his flock, the husbandman his field, the manufacturer his loom, thousands deserted their homes and occupations, all rural employ was at a pause ; and, had not the harvest been previously gathered in at the time of the discovery, a famine must have followed : this hurly-burly was soon restored to order. A detachment from the army arrived, and took possession of the mine in the name of the Crown. The gold was found in marshy spots, in the bed and by the side of a small stream, in a gravelly stratum, and in the cliffs of the rock which lie beneath. In the Dublin Society I saw an exact cast of a mass of gold which was found in the mine, weighing twenty-two ounces avoirdupois : it was discovered by eight labourers, before the mine was claimed by the Crown, who agreed to share in the search, and sold it for eighty guineas.

At Rathdrum we took fresh horses and proceeded to Glendaloch (or Glendalough), or the Seven Churches, about five miles off, which had I not seen, I should have deeply regretted.

The whole scene, soon after we quitted Rathdrum, became altered: one might have supposed that an ocean had separated Glendaloch from Avonmore. We found ourselves surrounded by vast mountains covered with brown heath, or more sable peat, whose hard and gloomy summits the rays of the sun, beginning to be obscured, shone upon without brightening: the whole was desolate, gloomy, and sublime.

Immediately after we passed a dark avenue of trees, which led to the ruins of a mansion burnt in the rebellion: it stood at the foot of a mountain; some of the walls, blackened by smoke, remained. The garden was overrun with briars and brambles; not a solitary rose-tree was to be seen, and the plantation was a wilderness. As we gazed upon the melancholy scene, the clouds gathered over our heads: all was silent and mournful. The vast and gloomy glen before us, in the year 1798, afforded shelter and concealment, for a short time, to a body of 25,000 rebels under the command of Dwyer and Hoult. The ruins which we saw marked the residence of a family, which, having excited the vengeance of those miserable and deluded beings, were obliged to fly for their lives.

Near this melancholy monument of insurrectional fury a barrack has been erected, for the purpose of preventing this place from again affording protection to rebels. Passing the barrack, which is stuccoed white, and is wholly out of unison with the dusky scenery in which it is placed, the dark and lofty round tower of Glendaloch, which means the valley of the two lakes, just appeared rising from a plain; whilst behind were stupendous mountains, half-covered with mist and cloud. This awful spot was formerly an episcopal see, and a well-inhabited city, till about 1214, when it was annexed to the diocese of Dublin. Upon its religious edifices falling into decay, it became a place of refuge to outlaws and robbers; and it was not until 1472, that a peaceable and perfect surrender was made of it to the Archbishop of Dublin by friar Dennis White, who had long usurped that see in opposition to the regal authority. Since that period Glendaloch has become a dreary desert.

Stupendous mountains enclose this place on all sides, except to the east. On the south are the mountains of Lugduff and Derrylawn, divided only by a small cataract: on the other side of a gloomy dark lake, and opposite to Lugduff, is Kenyerry; between which and Broccagh, on the north side, is a road leading from Hollywood to Wicklow. A cascade called Glaneola-brook descends from a hill at the west end of the upper lake.

This brook, Glendasan-river, St. Kevin's-keeve, and other cataracts, form a junction in the valley, called Avonmore, which is frequently swelled by torrents. The two lakes in the vale are divided from each other by a rich meadow; the rest of the soil is nearly steril. Here and there are some scanty crops of rye and oats. The names Darrybawn, Kemyderry, and Kyle, denote that great forests of oaks, and other timber, clothed the mountains. There is a group of thorns, of a great size, between the cathedral and upper lake, which St. Kevin is said to have planted. It is supposed, from what can now be discovered of the ancient city of Glendaloch, by its walls above, and foundations below, the surface of the earth, it probably extended from the Refectory-church to the Ivy-church, on both sides of the river. The only street now remaining is the road leading from the market-place into the county of Kildare: it is in good preservation, being paved with stones placed edgeways, and ten feet in breadth.

ST. KEVIN'S-KEEVE.

A small stream, called St. Kevin's-keeve, runs on the north side of the Seven Churches to Arklow, and, in its courses, falls into Glendaloch. In this stream weak and sickly children are dipped every Sunday and Thursday before sun-rise, and on St. Kevin's day, on the 3d of June. The tall brown Round Tower, the ivied churches which occupy a level in the valley, the distant sound of cataracts, the stupendous mountains midway magnified by mist, a few miserable cabins crouching at their base, the deep shade upon the valley, are all well calculated to inspire the imagination with religious dread and horror.

Speaking of the tower, Mr. Carr observes, this tower is very perfect, and has a very novel and a very noble appearance. I climbed up to the door, which was about eight feet high, the stone steps of which lay in a pile below, and found the tower completely hollow to the top within. I remarked several apertures, in which I should suppose, the beams, which once supported the stairs or ladders, were fastened. The whole fabric appeared to have the firmness and durability of rock.

Of these round towers there are fifty in Ireland; but of their particular use the learned have very much differed. Some consider them as anchorite pillars: and that one of the monks, to increase the pious reputation of his brethren, used always to watch and pray in them; so that the tower acted like a sort of upright tube, or speaking-trumpet, to enable the devotee to hold more perfect conversation with the Deity: others assert, that it was a place of penance, or a purgatorial pillar, in which the penitent was raised according to his crime; others, that it was

a belfry, being called in Irish *cloghahd*, which imports a steeple with a bell. As the opinions of antiquarians are so various, a plain-minded traveller is more at liberty to exercise his own judgment. All these towers are very near churches, and have been or are covered at the top; below which a little way there are narrow oblong holes, which evidently must have been constructed for the emission of sound: the top of these towers is capacious enough to admit of a bell of the size and shape in fashion in a distant era. The apertures very visible in the tower at Glendaloch, might have supported the principal props of a wooden staircase.

At Ardfert, near Tralle-bay, in the church-yard of the cathedral there, a round tower formerly stood, which although apparently very firm, fell down some years since; and what is very remarkable, all the stones fell inside, and formed a pile on the site of the tower.

To this hour, concludes Mr. Carr, in such high sanctity is this place held, that every year, on the 3d of June, great numbers of persons flock to the Seven Churches to celebrate the festival of Saint Kevin.

SUPERSTITIOUS VENERATION.

The veneration entertained by the peasantry, not only here but in every part of Ireland, for the ruins of castles, monasteries, and chapels, is so great, that scarcely any inducement can satisfy the conscience of an Irish labourer to mutilate their remains, even where they are neither useful nor ornamental. This amiable weakness has been singularly protective to the remains of antiquity in Ireland, where, from this reason, there are more of these venerable ruins than perhaps in any other country of the same extent in Europe. In the county of Tipperary alone, there are more than two hundred ruins in fine preservation.

Mr. Carr here introduces a copious extract from Dr. Ledwick's remarks on the antiquities of Ireland, but which in our analysis we shall pass over: it relates to the religious prejudices of the inhabitants towards their ancient edifices.

On arriving at Lugula, the shooting box of P. Latouche, Esq. Mr. Carr makes the following observations on the social disposition of peasants.

In different parts of this tour, we found the peasants very civil and social. If they saw me making a sketch, with an intelligent look, and a smile on their countenance, which prevented their approach from being thought either vulgar or impertinent, they would gently move round me, and examine my drawing; at other times they would ask what a clock it was, for the blended gratification of saying something and seeing a watch; and in the

road I have seen many a little urchin, who was carrying a parcel or letter as a gassoon, keeping up with the chaise for a considerable distance, without ever presuming to get behind, solely for the sake of being in society. These little fellows will frequently carry letters to a distance of forty or fifty miles, for scarcely any other remuneration than a hearty supper and a bad to sleep upon. We returned to Newry-bridge, and set off the next morning for Belle-Vue, another seat of Peter Latouche, Esq. The house is a handsome modern-built mansion; and the grounds, which are elevated, command a fine view of the sea, and are laid out with infinite taste. This noble demesne contains above three hundred acres of improved ground, which about thirty or forty years back was a barren waste, except about ten acres, on which a cabin stood, and half a dozen trees grew.

HUMANE INSTITUTION.

The first object worthy of being seen here, is an institution which does equal honour to the head and heart of Mrs. P. Latouche, a lady who, in a country remarkable for its benevolence, has distinguished herself for the extent and variety of her goodness. A fresh little girl neatly dressed conducted us through a winding walk to an extensive house and offices, built upon the estate, in which eight-and-twenty girls, the daughters of the neighbouring peasants, are clothed, boarded, and educated at the expence of this lady. The education of the girls is confined to useful objects, under the direction of a governess, and they alternately attend to all the domestic economy and arrangements of the house. Since the commencement of the school, several of the girls, having completed their education, have been comfortably married: three of them I learn have been settled in lodges upon the demesne, one of them in a shop established for the benefit of the neighbouring poor, in which every article of clothing, fuel, &c. bought at the best wholesale price, is sold to the poor at a very trifling advance, just sufficient to afford a little allowance to the young shopkeeper.

GROUNDS AND STRUCTURES AT BELLE-VUE.

I believe in England and Ireland the green and hot-houses of Belle-Vue are unrivalled. This palace of glass, which looks as if it had been raised by Aladdin's lamp, is six hundred and fifty feet in length, and includes an orange, a peach, a cherry-house, and vinery, and is filled with the most precious and beautiful plants from the sultry regions of Asia, Africa, and America, which, tastefully arranged and in the highest preservation, banquet the eye with their beautiful colours, and fill the air with the most voluptuous perfume.

As I was roving through this delicious spot, some steps led me into the chapel: the area of this room is twenty feet square, exclusive of the circular recesses, which are on each side raised by two or three steps, festooned with Egyptian drapery, in one of which the reading-desk is placed, and in the two others the seats for the family: the area is filled with accommodations for the children of the school I mentioned, and the servants of the family; the height of the chapel to the top of the dome is twenty-six feet: the seats are covered with scarlet cloth, the decorations are in the highest style of appropriate elegance, and the entrance opens into the conservatory.

In this room, under the roof of which there is a large *ceratonia siliqua edulis*, or locust-tree, of the class *polygamia* and order *trioecia*; it is a native of Sicily and the coasts of the Mediterranean, and covers sixty-four feet of the wall. There is also another locust-tree, a native of Jamaica, called the *hymenaea courbaril*, of the class and order *decandria monogynia*; and a vast number of plants not long arrived from New South Wales. No expence is spared to make the collection as valuable as possible. Upon the continent I have seen several princely conservatories, but none any where so extensive or so well filled as this surprising range of glass-work. If it be surpassed, it is only by the celebrated winter-garden in Prince Potemkin's palace at Petersburg, and by that only in its prodigious magnitude.

A serpentine ascending walk conducted us to a Turkish tent, from which there is a magnificent prospect, and thence to a banqueting-room, which impends over the summit of a high mountain, from which there is a fine view of the Glen of the Downs, a great pass between two long ranges of mountains covered with wood; and below, the vale narrows into a passage just capable of admitting a road, and a stream which runs along the side of it. This view is monotonous, and wants relief; it is more grand than beautiful. From the mountains we descended into the road where our chaise was waiting, and found on one side, at the bottom, a most romantic cottage *à la Suisse*, designed and furnished with great appropriate taste by Mrs. Latouche. A little rustic bridge of pine branches is thrown over a clear stream, which at this place has a gurgling descent; a colonnade of the trunks of trees marks that part of the dwelling in which the cottager lives: a walk round a casement diamond-cut window conducts to a delightful room, fitted up, in a style of rural simplicity, with every accommodation for the enjoyment of a few retired hours in the sultry heat of summer; and a mountain arises immediately behind, overhanging it with trees.

DRY LODGINGS.

Upon some of the cabins in our road to Dublin, says Mr. Carr, I read upon a board fixed over the door, "Dry lodgings," which inscription I was informed does not mean that the beds to be let there are free from damp, but that lodgings only, and no spirituous liquors, are to be had. They were a sort of ditch Hummums. In some of the cabins where milk is sold, a *white* rag, fixed upon a pole, figuratively announces that milk may be purchased within. We returned to the capital in time for dinner, much delighted with our Wicklow excursion. In the course of this tour, and afterwards, I made several enquiries whether it were true that Ireland is not infested with venomous animals, and in what particulars it differed from other countries in its animate and inanimate character; and was informed, by authorities which I could not doubt, that Ireland has neither snakes, toads, vultures, moles, or mole-cricketts; and it is gravely asserted that there were no frogs till King William the Third landed. In Ireland there is no chalk. The moisture of the climate is said to be fatal to venomous animals.

METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS.

Sir William Petty took great pains, and was the first to ascertain the fact of the agitation of the air in Ireland being greater than it is in England. He says, "That the rain which fell in Dublin in October 1663, compared with that which fell in London, was as twenty to nineteen; but that the windiness of the same month at Dublin was twenty, and at London only seventeen." Humid as the climate of Ireland is, agues and dropsies are not very common; and one of the first physicians in Ireland informed me, that he knew of no disease which could be considered peculiar to Ireland. According to Smith's History of Cork, the quantity of rain which falls in that city is, upon an average, twice as much as the quantity that falls in London; and Mr. Young states, that he kept a diary of the weather from the 20th of June to the 20th of October, and out of 122 days there were 75 of rain, and many of them were very heavy. And he adds, that he had examined similar registers in England, and could find no year in which such a moisture occurred; and that according to the information that he received, the wet season generally set in about the 1st of July, and continued till September or October, when there was usually a dry, fine season for a month or six weeks. Doctor Rutty, after remarking in his Meteorological Observations, that the south-west wind was the most violent that prevailed in Ireland, observes,

that from a register of the weather for forty-three years, he found the fair days in Ireland were not a third of the year; whilst in England the dry days are nearly two to one.

During my stay in Ireland, I found part of the summer and the autumn without much rain, and the winter was very mild. This moisture of climate is attributed to the exposure of Ireland to the Atlantic Ocean, in which state it operates as a screen to England; and to this almost constant moisture may be attributed the vivid verdure of the fields and meadows of Ireland. The low Irish are, from habit, much attached to this sort of climate, and are as thankful for a shower of rain as if they were amphibious. I should think the general climate of Ireland to be nearly similar to that of Devonshire, perhaps more genial. In the county of Wicklow there are many fine myrtles remaining in the open air all the year round. In Devonshire I have seen much finer; but that must be owing to a greater degree of attention being paid to them.

FRUIT, ROADS, &c.

The climate of Ireland is so salubrious, that we find, by history, those plagues which so much devastated England, but rarely reached Ireland. The leaves seldom fall till November. From the almost constant motion of its atmosphere, and the balmy softness of it, Ireland has been, for ages past, called "the Land of Zephyrs." It was also termed, on account of the beauty of its verdure, "the Green Island of the West," and "the Emerald Isle." The inferiority of the flavour of fruit in Ireland may be attributed to the moisture of its climate: peaches which grow in the open air seldom come to perfection: but the south produces excellent apples, and the Irish gooseberry is remarkably fine.

In the course of this tour, I was much surprised, as I have mentioned, to find the Irish so far before us in the beauty and durability of their roads, which are surpassed only by those of Sweden. I do not speak of their turnpike-roads; for I afterwards, in the north, found them to be, few as they are, miserably bad.

One great cause of the roads in Ireland enduring so long when once constructed, is owing to there being no ponderous waggons, or other heavy carriages, to cut them into ruts, except the few mails and stage-coaches, which are scantily established in different parts of the country. The cars, which are alone used for the conveyance of articles, are too light, and their wheels too broad in proportion, to do any injury. A common car generally weighs about 2 cwt. 2 qrs. and 4 lbs., and a common English waggon, with nine-inch wheels, from 55 cwt. to three tons. The usual

mode of making a road in Ireland is, by throwing up a foundation of earth in the middle, from the outsides, by placing a layer of lime-stone on this, broken to about the size of an egg, by scattering earth over the stones to make them bind, and by throwing over the whole a coat of gravel when it can be had.

Speaking of the church-yards in Ireland, Mr. Carr makes a comparison very unfavourable to those of our own country. He says, that there are in the sister island scarcely any of those pious puns, ridiculous elegies, and solemn conundrums with which the asyla of the dead are here disgraced.

Ireland is not only our superior in roads, but eminently in that decorum and good sense which prevent the asylum of the dead from becoming the ordinary lounging-place of the halting traveller, who, in England, well knows that almost every church-yard will furnish him, whilst his fowl is killing and roasting for his dinner, with an abundant and right merry feast of pious puns, ridiculous elegies, and solemn conundrums.

LITERARY PASSION OF THE IRISH.

A stranger of any observation, says Mr. Carr, cannot remain many days in Dublin, without noticing the uncommon thirst for literature which prevails in that city, as well as in the country at large. No country of its size, since the times of the Grecian states, ever produced more brilliant geniuses and profoundly learned men than Ireland: many of whom have been transplanted to England, and having there again taken root, and added to the strength and beauty of the land, have been regarded by common fame, as the rich production of its native growth. An example so brilliant has had its effect upon every humble member of the community of letters. Every one in Ireland wishes to be thought entitled to a seat in the circle of the *beaux esprits*; and very small is the number of those, in the respectable class of life, who have not been the happy authors of a sprightly pamphlet, a facetious song, or pointed epigram, so as to be noticed for their literary success as they pass along the streets. Judges, bishops, barristers, bankers, army-agents, clerks in office, all are writers, and have contributed, by solid information or playful pleasantry, to the augmentation of learning, or of adding a few white days to the calendar. In compositions of sprightliness and fancy, the Irish much resemble the French. A literary subject is supreme and paramount to all business, which I have several times, in different societies in Dublin, seen sustain a temporary pause, until the merits of a song, the most favourite and successful of the minor literary productions of Dublin, have been canvassed and appreciated.

Considering how strong this literary disposition is, a stranger.

cannot help expressing his surprise, to find such a paucity of literary societies, and of periodical literary publications. In Dublin there are only two of the former; the Royal Irish Academy, which has declined since the death of that polished ornament of his country, Lord Charlemont, and the Historical Society in Trinity College.

The daily newspapers in Dublin are, Freeman's Journal, Hibernian Journal, and Saunders's News-Letter. The evening papers are, the Dublin Evening Post and the Evening Herald, both of which, with Faulkner's Journal and the Telegraph, are published three times in the week. When I was at Dublin there was no Sunday paper; if such a print were well conducted, I should think it would answer.

Mr. Carr here introduces the following justification of the Irish for their hospitality, in opposition to the English prejudices. This generous spirit, so pregnant with every social virtue, is proverbially Irish, and has been so often commented upon, that, if my feelings would permit, I should have been content with the pleasure of thinking of it, without making a comment upon a subject which has been so frequently the object of merited eulogium. When I landed in Ireland, too many of those prejudices, which the fallacious delineations of malignant or stupid tourists had excited, clung about me. I had not inhaled the air of that country long before they dropped off, and no doubt retired with those venomous animals which have been most happily expatriated by the good apostle of Ireland, St. Patrick: but neither that tutelar saint, nor the soft moisture of the climate, had any share in their removal; they fled before the genuine character of the people. A stranger will always find it more easy *to get in, than to get out* of the house of an Irishman. Before the middling classes of society became refined, the spirit of hospitality was the same; but, like a good melon, it appeared under a rough covering: hence it was usual to force the bottle, and nail up the door, with barbarous conviviality. I cannot help expressing my regret that English prejudices have been sometimes strengthened even by the representations of Irishmen, arising from chagrin, or some worse motive. There is a saying amongst them, that "Put one Irishman on the spit and another will turn it."

IRISH ECONOMY.

The tables of the Irish do not differ from ours: the same abundance, style of cookery, order, and elegance, prevail. I saw a gentleman display an appearance of economy at his table, but it was of Irish growth; he pressed his *champagne* to save his *claret*. The Irish pride themselves on the superiority

of their potatoes, and having introduced them to a great part of Europe; they think that a potatoe grown out of Ireland partakes of the sickly growth of an exotic, and cannot be good.

IRISH POULTRY.

The poultry in Ireland is considered superior to ours; their fowls, I think, are as delicate and high-flavoured as those of Normandy. The dinner-hour is generally six o'clock. An elegant Irish lady will smile to hear how her ancestors lived. "The Irish," says Dr. Ledwich, "had two meals a day; one in winter before day; the other, and principal, late in the evening." Starnhurst must allude to the richer and more civilized, when he tells us they reclined on beds. For Sir John Harrington, writing in 1599, has these words: "Other pleasant and idle tales were needless and impertinent, or to describe O'Neale's *fern-tables* and *fern-forms* spread under the stately canopy of heaven. Their candles were peeled rushes, enveloped in butter or grease, as in other countries they were placed in lamps of oil. They were insatiately fond of swine's flesh, and so abundant was it, that Cambrensis declares he never saw the same in any other country; he notices particularly wild boars. These the northerns esteemed the highest luxury, nor can we wonder at their attracting them to this isle. A guest of O'Neale asked one of his guards, whether veal was not more delicate than pork? 'That,' answered the other, 'is as if you asked me, was you more honourable than O'Neale?' As they did not much broil or roast their meat, it was full of crude juices, and produced the leprosy; a disease very common here formerly, for Munster had many leper-houses: the same has been observed of the people with whom pork was in daily use. They were taught that the bad effects of this, and every other aliment, were effectually corrected by *aqua vite*." *Chacun à son goût*. If the ancient Irish, says Mr. Carr, were fond of pork half-raw, the fashionable world, in the gay and polished age of Charles II. in England, vied with each other in having a dish of Spanish puppies at their tables.

Mr. Carr takes great interest in refuting every insinuation of former writers, to the prejudice of the Irish. He accordingly contradicts the assertion that the ancient Irish were uncleanly in their persons, and asserts, that they were so remarkably cleanly, as never to rest themselves after fatigue, or sit down to a meal, till they had performed ablutions.

IRISH BREAKFAST.

An Irish breakfast is always a very bountiful one, and contains, exclusive of cold meats, most excellent eggs and honey: at the house of a particular friend I met with the ancient favourite

aliment in Ireland called stirabout, a sort of made
of oat-meal.

CHARACTER OF THE IRISH LADIES.

The ladies of Ireland possess a peculiarly pleasing frankness of manners, and a vivacity in conversation, which render highly interesting all they do and all they say. In this open sweetness of deportment, the libertine finds no encouragement; for their modesty must be the subject of remark and eulogy with every stranger. I have been speaking of the respectable class of female society, but the same virtue is to be found in the wretched mud cabin. The instances of conjugal defection are fewer in Ireland, for its size, than any other country of equal civilization. The appeal of the injured husband to the tribunal of the laws is rare. A distinguished advocate at the Irish bar assured me, that for the last six years there have not been more than five actions of *cum. con.* and not so many for the preceding twenty years. Two of those actions were between persons of very unequal situations of life in point of fortune, and were by the bar supposed to have originated in collusion for the hope of gain. The modesty of the Irish ladies is the effect of principle, and not of any coldness in the organization of nature: in no country are the women more fruitful. The husband only feels the tender regrets of love when business tears him from his home: he rarely knows the pang of him,

“ Who doats yet doubts, suspects yet fondly loves.”

The instances of ladies “ living and dying in single blessedness” are rare in Ireland. I saw only two old maids, and they were too amiable and pleasant not to convince me that their situation was their choice. The upper classes of Irish women are very handsome, and finely formed; but the lower Irish countrywomen are so disfigured by the smoke of their cabins, and their feet are so enlarged by being exposed without either shoes or stockings, that I think them inferior in complexion and form to the female peasantry of England. The commonest women in Dublin are, however, in general remarkable for the delicacy of their hands and arms, and the whiteness of the bosom. They are also in general powerfully made, and able to protect themselves. In Dublin I saw a combat between an English footman and an Irish fishwoman, which was well maintained for some time, until at length the footman got most soundly thrashed, and was obliged to yield: the fair Mendoza received many severe blows, but the bystanders never interfered, so convinced were they of the superiority of her stamina, and pugilistic powers.

The ladies of Ireland are generally elegant, and frequently highly educated; there are very few who do not speak French fluently, and many speak it with the purity of its native accentuation. They also frequently add Italian to their accomplishments, and it is no unusual circumstance to hear a young lady enter, with a critical knowledge, into the merits of the most celebrated authors, with a diffidence which shews that she is moved by a thirst for knowledge, and not by vanity. They are more highly accomplished in instrumental than in vocal music: a greater musical treat can scarcely be enjoyed than to hear some of them perform their own Irish airs, which are singularly sweet, simple, and affecting. Those who have been present at a ball in Ireland, can best attest the spirit, good-humour, grace, and elegance, which prevail in it: in this accomplishment they may rank next to the animated inhabitants of Paris. The balls in Dublin are very frequent, owing to there being such a poverty of public amusement, and this circumstance has also an evident tendency to enlarge and strengthen the social circle. Many of the ladies have a little of that peculiarity of pronunciation which is coarsely called the brogue, but it is a very small portion of it, and is far from being unpleasant, as long as a stranger is susceptible of it, which is but for a very short time. It is but natural to suppose that the pronunciation of an English lady must be as perceptible to an Irish lady who had always been confined to her own country, as that of the latter is to the former.

IRISH GENTLEMEN.

I know not how to make my reader better acquainted with the Irish gentry, than by the following description which Grattan has given of them: "I think," said he, "I know my country; I think I have a right to know her. She has her weaknesses: were she perfect one would admire her more, but love her less. *The gentlemen of Ireland act on sudden impulse; but that impulse is the result of a warm heart, a strong head, and great personal determination.* The errors incident to such a principle of action, must be their errors, but then the virtues belonging to that principle must be their virtues also; such errors may give a pretence to their enemies, but such virtues afford salvation to their country."

ANECDOTES OF DUELLING.

The practice of duelling, which has effected more injury to the Irish character than any other cause, is subsiding; but truth calls upon me to say, that it still has too wide a latitude of action. I do not defend duelling, but there are circumstances which call for an appeal beyond the law, and will be satisfied: and the re-

venge of a bruiser is that of a blackguard. The cause which provokes a duel ought to be of an imperious nature, and the remedy would then be more rarely sought.

At a bookseller's in Nassau-street I purchased a pamphlet, of which the seller said he had sold many copies, entitled "Advice to Seconds," containing general rules and instructions for all seconds in duels. I one day breakfasted with a gentleman; a shirt was airing at the fire, and I observed, that it was patched at the bottom in two places. I was of course a little surprised at such a discovery in any part of the dress of a man of rank and fortune: he saw what had attracted my eye, and laughingly told me that he had been shot through the body in a duel in that very shirt, and that it was its turn that day to be worn: the wound, I found, had nearly proved fatal, but did honour to the patriotic spirit of the owner of the shirt. Formerly this appeal to bullets or cold iron was horribly and ridiculously frequent in Ireland. An Irish gentleman informed me, that some years since an acquaintance of his, just arrived in Ireland from England, put up at an inn, and hearing a noise in the next room like somebody picking the wainscot with a sword, called up the waiter, and demanded of him the cause of his being so disturbed: "Oh! and plaze your honour," said the fellow, "its only Lord C—— pushing a little, because he expects to fight with some of his friends whom he has asked to dine with him here to-day." It was not from a sanguinary disposition, but solely from the chivalrous desire of preserving the far-famed bravery of his country from the stain of a doubt, that often induced an Irishman to mingle in a fray where he could have no interest or provocation.

CHARACTER OF THE LOW IRISH.

In this class of society, a stranger will see a perfect picture of nature. Pat stands before him, thanks to those who ought long since to have cherished and instructed him, as it were "in murder's (mother's) nakedness." His wit and warmth of heart are his own, his errors and their consequences will not be registered against *him*. I speak of him in a quiescent state, and not when suffering and ignorance led him into scenes of tumult, which inflamed his mind and blood to deeds that are foreign to his nature.

The lower Irish are remarkable for their ingenuity and docility, and a quick conception; in these properties they are equalled only by the Russians. It is curious to see with what scanty materials they will work; they build their own cabins, and make bridles, stirrups, cruppers, and ropes for every rustic purpose, of hay; and British adjutants allow that an Irish recruit is sooner made a soldier of than an English one.

That the Irish are not naturally lazy, is evident from the quan-

tity of laborious work which they will perform, when they have much to do, which is not frequently the case in their own country, and are adequately paid for it, so as to enable them to get proper food to support severe toil. Upon this principle, in England, an Irish labourer is always preferred. It has been asserted by Dr. Campbell, who wrote in 1777, that the Irish recruits were in general short, owing to the poverty of their food: if this assertion were correct, and few tourists appear to have been more accurate, they are much altered since that gentleman wrote; for most of the Irish militia regiments which I saw exhibited very fine-looking men, frequently exceeding the ordinary stature.

IRISH VOLUNTEERS.

If I was gratified by contemplating the militia of Ireland, I could not fail of deriving the greatest satisfaction from seeing those distinguished heroes, the Volunteers of Ireland: this army of patriots, composed of catholics as well as protestants, amount to about 80,000 men. When their country was in danger, they left their families, their homes, and their occupations, and placed themselves in martial array against the invader and the disturber of her repose: they fought, bled, and conquered; and their names will be enrolled in the grateful page of history, as the saviours of their native land.

What they have done, their brethren in arms on this side of the water are prepared and anxious to perform; and whenever the opportunity occurs, will cover themselves with equal glory.

The handsomest peasants in Ireland are the natives of Kilkenny and the neighbourhood, and the most wretched and squalid near Cork and Waterford, and in Munster and Connaught. In the county of Roscommon the male and female peasantry and horses are handsome; the former are fair and tall, and possess great flexibility of muscle: the men are the best leapers in Ireland. The finest hunters and most expert huntsmen are to be found in the fine sporting county of Fermanagh. In the county of Meath the peasants are very heavily limbed. In the county of Kerry, and along the western shore, the peasants very much resemble the Spaniards in expression of countenance, and colour of hair.

HONESTY OF THE LOW IRISH.

The lower orders will occasionally lie, and so will the lower orders of any other country, unless they are instructed better; and so should we all, had we not been corrected in our childhood for doing it. It has been asserted, that the low Irish are addicted to pilfering; I met with no instance of it personally. An intelligent friend of mine, one of the largest linen-manufacturers

in the north of Ireland, in whose house there is seldom less than twelve or fifteen hundred pounds *in cash*, surrounded with two or three hundred poor peasants, retires at night to his bed without bolting a door, or fastening a window. During Lady Cathcart's imprisonment in her own house in Ireland, for twenty years, by the orders of her husband, (an affair which made a great noise some years since,) her Ladyship wished to remove some remarkably fine and valuable diamonds, which she had concealed from her husband, out of the house, but having no friend or servant whom she could trust, she spoke to a miserable beggar-woman who used to come to the house, from the window of the room in which she was confined. The woman promised to take care of the jewels, and Lady Cathcart accordingly threw the parcel containing them to her out of the window: the poor mendicant conveyed them to the person to whom they were addressed; and when Lady Cathcart recovered her liberty some years afterwards, her diamonds were safely restored to her. I was well informed, that a disposition to inebriation amongst the peasantry had rather subsided, and had principally confined itself to Dublin.

IRISH SCHOOL.

The instruction of the common people is in the lowest state of degradation. In the summer a wretched uncharactered itinerant derives a scanty and precarious existence by wandering from parish to parish, and opening a school in some ditch covered with heath and furze, to which the inhabitants send their children to be instructed by the miserable being, who is nearly as ignorant as themselves; and in the winter these pedagogue pedlars go from door to door offering their services, and pick up just sufficient to prevent themselves from perishing by famine. What proportion of morals and learning can flow from such a source into the mind of the ragged young pupil, can easily be imagined, but cannot be reflected upon without serious concern. A gentleman of undoubted veracity stated, not long since, before the Dublin Association for distributing Bibles and Testaments amongst the Poor, that whole parishes were without a Bible.

Their native urbanity to each other is very pleasing; I have frequently seen two boors take off their hats and salute each other with great civility. The expressions of these fellows upon meeting one another, are full of cordiality. One of them in Dublin met a boy after his own heart, who, in the sincerity of his soul, exclaimed, "Paddy! myself's glad to see you, for in troth I wish you well." "By my shoul, I knows it well," said the other, "but you have but the half of it;" that is, the pleasure is divided. If you ask a common fellow in the streets of Dublin which is the way to a place, he will take off his hat, and if he

does not know it, he will take care not to tell you so (for nothing is more painful to an Irishman than to be thought ignorant); - he will either direct you by an appeal to his imagination, which is ever ready, or he will say, "I shall find it out for your honour immediately;" and away he flies into some shop for information, which he is happy to be the bearer of, without any hope of reward.

Their hospitality, when their circumstances are not too wretched to display it, is remarkably great. The neighbour or the stranger finds every man's door open, and to walk in without ceremony at meal-time, and to partake of his bowl of potatoes, is always sure to give pleasure to every one of the house, and the pig is turned out to make room for the gentleman. If the visitor can relate a lively tale, or play upon any instrument, all the family is in smiles, and the young will begin a merry dance, whilst the old will smoke after one another out of the same pipe, and entertain each other with stories. A gentleman of an erratic turn was pointed out to me, who with his flute in his hand, a clean pair of stockings and a shirt in his pocket, wandered through the country every summer: wherever he stopped the face of a stranger made him welcome, and the sight of his instrument doubly so; the best seat, if they had any, the best potatoes and new milk, were allotted for his dinner; and clean straw, and sometimes a pair of sheets, formed his bed; which, although frequently not a bed of roses, was always rendered welcome by fatigue, and the peculiar bias of his mind.

IRISH MUSIC.

The peasantry are uncommonly attached to their ancient melodies, some of which are exquisitely beautiful. In some parts of Ireland the harp is yet in use; but the Irish bagpipe is the favourite instrument. The stock of national music has not been much increased of late years. The Irish of all classes are fond of music.

A Sunday with the peasantry in Ireland is not unlike the same day in France. After the hours of devotion, a spirit of gaiety shines upon every hour, the bagpipe is heard, and every foot is in motion. The cabin on this day is deserted: and families, in order to meet together, and enjoy the luxury of a social chit-chat, even in rain and snow, will walk three or four miles to a given spot. The same social disposition attaches them to a festive meeting, which owes its origin to the following circumstance: In the provinces of Munster and Connaught, and other counties, there were several fountains and wells, which, in the early ages of christianity, were dedicated to some favourite saint, whose patronage was supposed to give such sanctity to the waters, that

the invalids who were immersed in them lost all their maladies. On the anniversary of each saint, numbers flocked round these wells for the united purpose of devotion and amusement; tents and booths were pitched in the adjoining fields; erratic musicians, hawkers, and shewmen assembled from the neighbouring towns, and priests came to hear confessions: the devotees, after going round the holy wells several times on their bare knees, the laceration of which had a marvellous effect in expiating offences, closed the evening by dancing, and at their departure fastened a small piece of cloth round the branch of the trees or bushes growing near these consecrated waters, as a memorial of their having performed their penitential exercises.

In the year 1780, the priests discontinued their attendance, but the patrons, as these meetings were called, still continued the same, and to this day attract all the country for ten or twenty miles round. At these assemblies many droll things are said, many engagements of friendship are made, and many heads are broken as the power of whiskey develops itself: but revenge rises not with the morning. Pat awakes, finds a hole in his head, which nature, without confining the energies of the mind, seems to have formed in contemplation of the consequences of these festive associations; he no longer remembers the hand that gave the blow, and vigorous health and a purity of blood very speedily fill up the fissure. The following story is an instance of humour united to considerable shrewdness. An Irishman, on having knocked at the door of a very low priest after one of these patrons, and requested a night's lodging, the priest told him that he could not accommodate him, because there were only two beds in the house; one for himself, and the other for his niece, pointing to their rooms. Pat begged permission to sit down; and, whilst the priest and his niece went out for something, he took the bellows and put it in the young lady's bed, and calling about five days afterwards, found it there still.

A faint trait of Druidical superstition still lingers amongst the peasantry of Munster, where, if a murder has been committed in the open air, it is considered indispensable in every Roman Catholic who passes by to throw a stone on the spot, which, from a strict adherence to this custom, presents a considerable pyramid of stones. In the counties of Tipperary and Kerry, also, these stony piles are to be found, which are beautifully and expressively called *clogh-breegh*, or *stones of sorrow*.

FUNERAL HOWL.

In Ireland the grim tyrant is noticed with eccentric honours. Upon the death of an Irish man or woman the straw upon which the deceased reposed is burned before the cabin door, and as the

flames arise the family set up the death howl. At night the body with the face exposed, and the rest covered with a white sheet, placed upon some boards, or an unhinged door supported by stools, is waked; when all the relatives, friends, and neighbours of the deceased assemble together; candles and candlesticks borrowed from the neighbourhood are stuck round the deceased: according to the circumstances of the family, the company regaled with whiskey, ale, cake, pipes and tobacco. A tourist, whose name does not appear to his book that, "Walking out one morning rather early, I heard groans and shrieks in a house. Attracted by curiosity and saw in a room about fifty women weeping over a man, who died a couple of days before. Four of them in particular made more noise than the rest, tore their hair, and embraced the deceased. I remarked that in about a quarter of an hour they were tired, went into another room, and were replaced by four others, who continued their shrieks until the others were recovered; these, after swallowing a large glass of whiskey, to enable them to make more noise, resumed their places, and the others went to refresh themselves."

IRISH IMPRECATIONS.

Amongst the mortuary peculiarities of the Irish, their love for posthumous honours, which I have before glanced at, is worthy of remark. An elderly man, whom a much esteemed clerical friend of mine attended in the last stage of existence, met death with fortitude, but expressed his grief that his dissolution should take place at a time when the employments of spring would prevent his funeral from being numerously attended. This is a general national trait; and a grievous imprecation in the Irish language is, "May your burial be forsaken:" they have also another very figurative malediction, "May the grass grow green before your door."

Some of their customs are singular and characteristic. On the anniversary of Saint Patrick, the country people assemble in their nearest towns or villages, get very tipsy (but not bled by surgeons as some authors have asserted), and walk through the streets with the *trifolium pratense*, or, as they call it, shamrock, in their hats, when whiskey is drunk in copious libations; and from a spirit of gallantry, these merry devotees continue drunk the greater part of the next day, viz. the 18th of March, all in honour of Sheelagh, St. Patrick's wife.

POPULAR SUPERSTITIONS.

The common people also believe in fairies. In the last century, every great family in Ireland had a banshee; a fairy, in the

shape of a little frightful old woman, who used to warble a melancholy ditty under the windows of great houses, to warn the family that some of them were about to die: these agreeable supernatural visitors have not been seen for some time. They also believe that the ancient forts and mounts are sacred to a little fairy race, and therefore would not, for any consideration, touch them with a spade. In several parts of Ireland are *elf-stones*; angular flints, with which the peasantry suppose the fairies, by touching them, destroy their cows. When these animals are affected by a natural disease, they say they are *elf-shot*. Digging requires a great deal of encouragement before he can be brought to level an ant-hill, from a belief that it is a fairy

Although it might be supposed, from a whole family of different sexes being crowded together in one room, in a cabin, that much indecency, and consequent sensual depravity, must occur; yet the contrary, I was informed by an English gentleman who had long resided in Ireland, and who had made the lower Irish the peculiar objects of his attention, was the case. Incest is a crime which is attended with peculiar detestation amongst the lower orders.

INSIDE OF A CABIN.

Although most of the peasants have an abominable practice of heaping all the filth of their cattle and cabin in a pile before the front of their dwellings, until the roof in front can only be seen above it; yet every degree of decency prevails within. That instinctive delicacy which exists between the sexes, in every thing which is the subject of it in higher life, is not banished from the poor cabin. The low Irish are much improved in their habits of cleanliness. Formerly a common fellow would not hesitate sweeping down a flight of stairs with his wig, and wearing it afterwards. I have been informed that, to this day, at those subterranean *tables d'hôtes* in the *diving cellars* of St. Giles's, in London, after dinner, a large Newfoundland dog, or a little boy with a wig on his head, walks round the table for the guests to wipe their fingers upon.

SINGULAR ANECDOTE.

That the Irish, even in a state of political ebullition, are capable of generous actions, the following fact will prove: During the rebellion, a Protestant, who was a prisoner in the hands of the rebels, was called out to be executed: the executioner ordered him to turn his back; the prisoner refused, and calmly declared that he was not afraid to face death; and just as the former was about to fire at him, the latter told him to stop, and re-

requested him to dispatch him with dexterity; and pulling off his hat, coat, and waistcoat, which were new, threw them to him as a present to favour him with a speedy death. The executioner was so impressed with his conduct, that he said he must be innocent, and refused to kill him; in consequence of which, another rebel rushed forward to put an end to his existence, upon which the executioner swore, that he would lay breathless at his feet the first man who attempted to hurt one hair of the prisoner's head, and conducted him in safety out of the rebel lines.

The common Irish marry very young, and hence there are very few spurious children in that country, and infanticide is scarcely ever heard of.

IRISH PRIDE.

The native pride of the low Irish is ill directed by ignorance, but the frequent source of many of their better qualities. Although there are many beggars in Dublin, and in other towns; yet, to be reduced to beggary is thought so odious, that no one would set up for a beggar, more than he would for a prophet, in his own county. No one, however pinched, could ask for alms in his own neighbourhood. An intelligent friend of mine told me, that a miserable creature, who went by the name of Doctor Donolly, although in a state of abject penury, would never accept of a bit of pork, a potatoe, or a drink of milk, if offered to him; but preferred eating offal from a dunghill, to the idea of being supported as an object of charity in the place of his nativity. After a fast of three days, he has been known to refuse proffered victuals. This man one day went twenty-seven miles with a letter for a gentleman to his daughter at a boarding-school: arriving early in the morning, the servant girl, upon opening the door, after a loud consequential double rap, was much surprised to see this wretch in rags, and, without asking him any questions, she said, "Go along, we have got nothing for you." The doctor immediately returned home *without delivering the letter*, making a distance of fifty-four Irish miles without having broken his fast.

There have been instances of gentlemen opening *gratuitous* schools upon their estates, and, from ignorance of the character of their own countrymen, they have been surprised to find that frequently the poor people would not send their children; they forgot that native pride which revolts at eleemosynary aid. In such an instance as this, if the independent spirit of the parent had been flattered, by calling for the payment of only a tester at the end of the year towards the discharge of some of the expences incident to the establishment, the child would not have been withheld from it.

The attachment of the low Irish to their children is very great. To play with her child is the highest delight of the mother; and, for this indulgence, she will, by an injudicious, but natural miscalculation of maternal duty, omit the care of herself and her house: nor is the piety of their affection to their parents less distinguishable. Ireland is not cursed with English poor-laws: there are no pauper-houses there, into which a child, in the full vigour of life and health, can cast the hoary-headed infirm author of his days, as he would a loathsome incumbrance, to languish out the poor remains of life under the neglect or barbarity of a parochial officer, deserted by the being to whom he has imparted existence, and cut off from all the soothing endearments of filial gratitude. It is a rare sight to see, in Ireland, an aged parent begging for bread.

INFLUENCE OF KINDNESS AND CHARACTER.

An instance is recorded of the effect which the conduct of the Dean of Kilfenora, Dr. Stevenson, produced upon his parishioners during the rebellion. When this gentleman went to reside upon his living of Callan, one of the largest in Ireland, he found that a spirit of insurrection had tainted every one of his parishioners: instead of loading them with taunts, reproaches, and menaces, he attached them by kindnesses, by those courtesies which are dear to every feeling, and particularly to an Irish mind; not by gifts, which if they cannot be returned, affect the sensibility, by destroying that equality which is necessary to cordial attachments, but by a course of civilities and gentle expressions, which can be repaid by the receiver. By this proceeding he gained their confidence and their love, and what was of no little consequence, the friendship of their priest. He pointed out to them the peril of their desperate enterprize, and, behold the fruits of a deportment like this! in one day *six hundred rebels* came to his house and surrendered their arms,

HARDIHOOD OF THE IRISH.

Of the extreme hardihood of the Irish, the following instances are given. Mr. Gordon, in his History of the Irish Rebellion, says, "The hardiness and agility of the labouring classes of the Irish, were on this (speaking of an affair at Gorey) and other occasions, in the course of the rebellion, very remarkable. Their swiftness of foot, and activity in passing over brooks and ditches were such, that they could not always in crossing the fields be overtaken by horsemen; and with so much strength of constitution were they found to be endued, that to kill them was difficult, many, after a multitude of stabs, not expiring until their necks were cut across." Another remarkable instance is mentioned by

the same author, respecting the recovery of a rebel named Charles Davis, of Enniscorthy, a glazier, "who, after having subsisted on the body of a cock for four days, in a loathsome hole where he was concealed, was discovered in the act of running away from his lurking-place, and brought to Vinegar-hill, where he was shot through the body and one of his arms, and violently struck in several parts of the head with a pike, which, however, penetrated not into the brain, and was thrown into a grave on his back, with a heap of earth and stones over him. His faithful dog having scraped away the covering from his face, and cleansed it by licking the blood, he returned to life, after an interment of twelve hours, and is now living in perfect health."

IRISH SOLDIER AND SAILOR.

In battle, on shore and at sea, the Irish soldier and sailor have been remarkable for their valour, steadiness, and subordination; no inconsiderable portion of the population of Ireland may be found on board of our ships of war. As far back as Spenser's time, the bravery of the Irish soldier was honourably mentioned. That happy genius says, "I have heard some great warriors say, that in all the services which they had seen abroad in foreign countries, they never saw a more comely man than an Irishman, nor that cometh on more bravely to his charge."

MIDDLE-MEN.

Who, says Mr. Carr, but those who knew the fact, would believe, that such a "strong, hardy, bold, brave, laborious, warm-hearted, and faithful race of men," should be so sunk in the scale of society as they are? In Ireland there is a description of men who are like so many ravenous wolves amongst the peasantry, known by the name of Middle-men. Between the actual proprietor, and the occupant of the land, there are frequently no less than four or five progressive tenants, who frequently never see the land which they hold, and which is assigned from one to the other, until encumbered and dispirited by such a concatenation of exaction, is, instead of being able to make thrice the amount of his rent, as he ought to be enabled to do, namely, one-third for his landlord, another for the support of his family, and the remaining part for contingencies, the last taker can scarcely, after infinite toil and privation, pay his immediate lord, and feed and clothe himself and family.

DEGRADED CONDITION OF THE LOW IRISH.

A farm was pointed out to me in the south-west of Ireland, for which the occupier paid four hundred pounds per annum, a rent which in England is very respectable, and would secure,

with common good husbandry and prudence, a very comfortable maintenance for the tenant and his family, and enable him to lay a little by; but instead of any appearance of comfort, the farmer was half-naked, and his wife and family in rags. How little the land must experience the re-invigorating benefits of good husbandry can easily be imagined. Without being slaves in fact, their condition is little better than vassalage in its most oppressive form. Potatoes and butter-milk, the food of an English hog, form the degrading repast of the Irish peasant; a little oatmeal is a delicacy; a Sunday bit of pork a great and rare luxury. Depressed to an equality with the beast of the field, he shares his sorry meal with his cow, his dog, and his pig, who frequently feed with him, as his equal associates, out of the same bowl. This sense of degradation, and a conviction that his wretchedness has scarcely any thing below it in the scale of human penury, frequently led the unhappy peasant to mingle in those unfortunate tumults which have so long, and so fatally, retarded the improvement of his country; and when he beheld how hopeless were the exertions of rebellion, to rush forward in the scene of slaughter, uncover his head, and bow it to the bullets of his enemy.

SUMMARY OF THE IRISH CHARACTER.

With few materials for ingenuity to work with, the peasantry of Ireland are most ingenious, and with adequate inducements laboriously indefatigable: they possess, in general, personal beauty and vigour of frame; they abound with wit and sensibility, although all the avenues to useful knowledge are closed against them; they are capable of forgiving injuries, and are generous even to their oppressors; they are sensible of superior merit, and submissive to it; they display natural urbanity in rags and penury, are cordially hospitable, ardent for information, social in their habits, kind in their disposition, in gaiety of heart and genuine humour unrivalled, even in their superstition presenting an union of pleasantry and tenderness; they are warm and constant in their attachments, faithful and incorruptible in their engagements, innocent, with the power of sensual enjoyment perpetually within their reach; observant of sexual modesty, though crowded in the narrow limits of a cabin; strangers to a crime which reddens the cheek of manhood with horror; tenacious of respect; acutely sensible of and easily won by kindnesses. Such is the peasantry of Ireland: I appeal not to the affections or the humanity, but to the justice of every one to whom chance may direct these pages, whether men so constituted present no character which a wise government can mould to the great purpose of augmenting the prosperity of the country, and the happiness of society. Well

might Lord Chesterfield, when lord-lieutenant of Ireland, exclaim, " God has done every thing for this country, man nothing." Some exertions have been made to ameliorate the condition of the peasantry, but their operation has too much resembled Martial's barber, who was so slow, that the hair began to grow on the side of the face he had first shaved, before he had finished the other.

ANCIENT TOWNS.

In a direction nearly east and west on the long ridge of the Curragh, there is a chain of fourteen circular entrenchments of different diameters, terminated on the east by an earthen tumulus, and on the west by a large circular rath, near which is a small circular mound, with a cavity on the top, supposed to have been a cucu or kitchen of some of the ancient inhabitants. These intrenchments are called in the Irish language *farranta foras*, or ancient graves, and hence, as well as on account of their being too small for forts, they are considered to be tombs of the ancient Irish.

MONASTEREVEN.

Monastereven, which is thirty miles from Dublin, is a very pretty town, and beautifully situated; on the left of the entrance of the town is Moore Abbey, the noble seat of the Marquis of Drogheda, standing at the foot of a lofty hill on the banks of the Barrow; the demesne is finely cultivated and very picturesque. The river and canal, which crosses the former, very much augment the beauty of the scenery. By means of this canal, a trade is opened with Athy, Carlow, Waterford, and Ross, and every day exhibits a scene of bustle, gaiety, and vivacity, by the canal-boats passing and repassing. Monastereven derives its name from a noble abbey founded by St. Abben, who bestowed upon it the privilege of being a sanctuary. St. Emin or Evin, in the beginning of the seventh century, placed a number of monks from South Munster in this abbey, the abbot of which sat as a baron in parliament. Upon the suppression of monasteries, this abbey, through different channels of descent or transfer, became the property of the Marquis of Drogheda, and it still displays, under the hoar of time, the marks of its former dignity.

THE ROG OF ALLEN.

The next stage was to Maryborough, so called after Mary, Queen of England. A market was established here by the last Sir James Parnell, for the encouragement of the woollen yarn and stuff manufacture. As we approached the vast waste called

the Bog of Allen, the conversation became influenced by the surrounding scenery, and we talked of these wonderful powers of nature, by which she sometimes revolutionizes her own works. The bog which lay before us, and which resembled at a distance a vast brown lake, was once covered with the finest forest-trees, now buried under its dreary surface.—This was the first bog I had ever seen in Ireland, and having fallen into the usual false notions of Englishmen who have never visited Ireland, that a bog was a collection of thick mud, I was at first surprised to see people walking upon it, and cattle here and there picking up a scanty blade upon this russet lawn. This celebrated bog crosses several counties, contains three hundred thousand acres, and is the largest in Ireland. The bogs of Ireland at first seemed to be a subject of little interest, but as I enquired and reflected, I found them a source of uncommon surprise, curiosity, and amusement. The turf-bogs of Ireland have been considered as masses of putrefaction and as very insalubrious, and like marshes and fens, united a mephitic deleterious vapour or putrid miasmata. So far from this being correct, those who reside in this neighbourhood are as healthy and vigorous as the natives of any other part of Ireland; and Sir William Petty informs us, that the country people used to preserve their eggs and butter in them. Doctor Campbell observes, that he has seen a shoe, of one piece of leather, nearly stitched, taken out of a bog, where it was supposed, from its fashion, to have lain for centuries, entirely fresh. He also mentions, that he had seen butter called rouskin, which had been hid in hollow trunks of trees so long, that it was become hard, and almost friable, yet not devoid ofunctuosity, and that the length of time which it had been buried must have been great, on account of the bog having grown over it ten feet. I was also informed by a gentleman upon whose veracity I can rely, that he saw the skeleton of a coxler, who had been unexpectedly overwhelmed by a floating bog, in which, upon its being afterwards reclaimed, he had been discovered; that when found, he had the appearance of having been embalmed, and that a shoe and some leather, which lay by his side, were in a perfect state of preservation.

CURIOUS BOG ANECDOTES.

How bogs have been produced is a subject which, like the attributable cause of most phenomena, is involved in philosophical conjecture. Underneath their surface, at a considerable depth, whole forests of prostrate trees, apparently burnt off from the roots, are found, and the roots remain fast in the ground: and so antiseptic is the nature of the extraordinary mass which covers them, that the finest oaks, fir, and yew, with all their branches,

are constantly dug up in so perfect, or rather in so improved a condition, that they are preferred to the wood of the same sort of trees felled by the woodman.

In houses of respectability, I have seen stairs and bannisters formed of the bog oak, which looked very beautiful. As fuel, bog-wood is considered a great luxury, and makes a most brilliant fire. In some places, by digging to a great depth, recumbent forests upon forests, with a layer of earth between, have been discovered, like a sort of vegetable Herculaneum. The learned General Vallancey, in his *Collectanea* says, "That the late Mr. Evans, engineer, informed him, that in cutting the line of the Royal Canal through the bog of Cappagh, between Dublin and Kilcock, at the distance of twenty-six feet, he met with fir-trees, which apparently had been planted in avenues; and at this depth he found a lump of tallow, weighing about two hundred weight; that he sunk fourteen feet below these trees in bog, and came to a hard bottom, on which were oak-trees prostrated.

In the bog of Monela, not many miles from the bog of Allen, stumps of trees are visible above the surface, under which is a stratum of turf, to the depth of ten or fifteen feet, under which is another layer of prostrate trees; beneath them another stratum of earth of considerable depth, below which a great number of stumps of trees are found standing upright, presenting a succession of three distinct woods, one above the other.

Philosophical investigation has not hitherto satisfactorily accounted for the prostration of these trees, and for the appearance of ignition at the bottom of their trunks. The softness and embalming nature of the bog are at variance with the idea, that such appearances could be effected by its action. The formation of bogs must have been very gradual; and as they thickened, they must have equally embraced every object which they came in contact with, so as rather to have supported than destroyed their perpendicularity. I do not speak of those still more wonderful phenomena, the moving bogs, which might have borne down trees in the progress. If the bog trees which appear to have been burned down had been rarely discovered, the solution of the difficulty would have been easier. In Sweden I saw large tracts of fir-forests, which had been cleared by the peasants, effected by making a fire round the bottom of the trunk of the tree, and burning it through instead of felling it by the axe or saw: this simple but slovenly process is resorted to, because that country is nearly one vast forest. That Ireland, like Sweden, was once overrun with forests, the contents of the bogs sufficiently prove: and the discovery of the horns of the

moosedeer amongst them, an animal which for ages has been extinct in Ireland, sufficiently demonstrates the antiquity of such a profusion of trees, which no doubt were anterior to the Brehon laws; because as they inflicted severe penalties upon the person who injured his neighbour's trees, every sort of which they enumerated, (even the shrubs and underwood being protected from violation by them) they form an evidence of the value of timber in Ireland, which must have arisen from its scarcity. If the soil of Sweden were productive of bog trees, burned as I have described, and not removed, they might, by their lying thick on the ground, form an impediment to all streams and currents, and gather in their branches whatever rubbish such waters brought with them, until a vegetable mass or bog had been formed; but is it not fair to suppose, that only the burned trees would have been covered by this vegetable accretion, and that the trees which had not been weakened at the roots by fire, would have remained perpendicular? This accretion could not have had any caustic quality in it; how could it burn away the tree from its roots, and not only spare but preserve the trunk and branches? Yet in the bogs of Ireland all the trees discovered have been found in a horizontal position, and present the appearance of having been separated from their roots by fire. Had the ancient boors of the country thus felled them, only partial instances of such burning would have occurred; but the philosophical progress, whatever it may have been, which has prostrated them with the ground, appears to have been uniform. I make these remarks with diffidence; it is not always the worst property of ignorance to doubt, or to raise a doubt. The subject is a very interesting one, and highly merits investigation. No writer has yet, I believe, illustrated the causes of the position and appearances of these trees. The black bog cuts like cheese, and resembles rotten wood: heath, sedgy grass, bog myrtle, and rushes, grow spontaneously upon it, and its surface is rarely level: the depth of them is various; they have been perforated deeper than fifty feet. The bog of Allen appears to rest upon that incomparable manure, lime-stone gravel, and might be easily converted into fine meadow-land, at a vast profit to the improver, or, as he is called in the bog language, a reclaimer. Inexhaustible quarries of the finest lime-stone are found in most parts of Ireland.

A company of Dutch boors offered their countryman King William to convert this bog into a meadow, and to carry the coals of Millinaul by canals, which they proposed cutting through various parts of Ireland, provided that monarch would have permitted them to have been governed by the laws of Holland.

In those bogs have been discovered many ponderous and beautiful ornaments of gold and silver, such as fibulæ, clasps, buckles, bracelets, anklets, frontlets, limetts, plates of gold, brass weapons, &c., many of which are of elegant workmanship, and give a high idea of the skill and taste of the ancient Irish. Bugle-horns have also been discovered, made of copper, lapped over and rivetted with copper nails very ingeniously. Upon being sounded they give a loud, distinct note. The art of soldering does not appear to have been discovered when these precious remains of antiquity were first formed; at least the union of the parts of those which I saw was effected by beating or twisting ~~them~~ together.

The bog is cut with an instrument called a slane, a spade of about four inches broad, with a steel blade of the same breadth, standing at right angles with the edge of the spade: the turf is piled up in pyramidical heaps on the margin of the pits out of which they are dug, each piece being about the size and shape of a brick. The mode of reclaiming bogs is now very well understood; and it is ascertained that bogs must be kept drained, otherwise they will relapse; it is a curious circumstance, that when they are once reclaimed, they are convertible to any purpose of agriculture.

THE WIDOW.

On arriving near Roscrea, Mr. Carr mentions the following interesting anecdote: A chain of ancient square watch-towers within sight of each other, for many miles in this part of the country, occasionally diverts the eye from the numerous wretched cabins which appear along the road. In one of them which I saw erected in a ditch, resided a beautiful woman, who had all the deportment of one of a superior order, and two remarkably handsome and healthy children. They were dressed very neatly, although they came out of a hut of mud and weeds, and filled with smoke. They attracted the attention of almost every traveller on that road, who, pleased with their appearance, generally left some little token of their approbation behind. The poor woman was a widow: she was travelling in this country with her little son and daughter, when a fever attacked her; exhausted by its ravages, by hunger, and fatigue, she sunk on the road. The miserable cottager in the neighbourhood immediately built her a cabin, placed clean straw in it, and daily supplied her and her children with milk and potatoes. She recovered; though frequently pressed, she has constantly declined to relate her history, and now works for the neighbouring gentry.

On reaching Limerick Mr. Carr makes the following interesting remarks on the city:—Limerick exports pork, butter, beef, hides, and rape-seed; and imports sugar, rum, timber, wines, coals, tobacco, salt, and bark. Its trade has flourished to an amazing extent. Many of the families here are opulent, and handsome equipages are to be seen in the streets, whereas in the year 1740 and 1750, there were only four carriages in and near the place. The slaughtering, salting and packing houses, belonging to the provision-trade, are well worthy the notice of the traveller. The most frequent objects to be met with in the streets, are cars laden with beef proceeding to the salting-houses. Much of the provision supports the brave-seamen of the United Kingdom, and enables them to endure the fatigue of the blockade and the peril of the battle. Although Ireland cannot build a navy, she furnishes it with a brave, hard, gallant, and loyal race of men, and contributes not a little to the sustenance of the British fleets. The inns have not kept equal pace with the prosperity of the town: they are dirty and ill attended, but, as usual, furnished excellent wine at four shillings per bottle. We also partook of some excellent cow-beef. I wish I could object to nothing more than the inconvenience of ill-conducted inns; but, alas! a subject of much deeper interest, and truly afflicting to every feeling mind, is to be found, if the traveller will take the trouble of walking over Thomond's bridge and enter the house of *Industry*, as it is called. He will quit a noble city, gay with novelty, opulence, and luxury, for a scene which will strike his mind with horror. Under the roof of this house, I saw madmen *stark naked*, girded only by their irons, standing in the rain, in an open court, attended by women; their cells, upon the ground-floor, scantily supplied with straw, damp, and ill secured. In the wards of labour, abandoned prostitutes, in rags and vermin, each loaded with a long chain and heavy log, working only when the eye of the superintending officer was upon them, are associated through the day with respectable old family house-keepers, who, having no children to support them, to prevent starving, seek this wretched asylum. At *night* they sleep together in the same room; the sick (unless in very extreme cases) and the healthy, the good and the bad, all crowded together.

Across a yard, in a large room, nearly thirty feet long, a raving maniac, instead of being strapped to his bed, was handcuffed to a stone of 300 lbs. weight, which, with the most horrible yells, by a convulsive effort of strength, he dragged from one end of the room to the other, constantly exposed to the exasperating view and conversation of those who were ne-

the yard. I have been well informed that large sums of money have been raised in every county for the erection of mad-houses: how has this money been applied?

One of the naked subjects which I mentioned, lost his senses by an excess of mathematical research, the other by a disappointment of the heart, and the third, who was in the same yard, by drunkenness: a more affecting and expressive groupe for the pencil could never be presented. In one cell, covered to his chin in straw, was a hoary-headed man, who would never speak, nor take any thing unless conjured to do so by the name of "the Most High."

HISTORY OF LIMERICK.

Limerick is enrolled in the page of English history. In the time of Cromwell it was besieged by Ireton, who was repulsed in several attacks. After displaying great spirit and gallantry, the citizens became disunited on account of their different political attachments, some being followers of the Pope's nuncio, some to King Charles, and others to the English army, till at last they surrendered to the enemy, when Ireton entered the town, and soon afterwards died there. In September 1691, it was invested by General Ginkle, after his victory over King James's army at Aghrim, and was surrendered on the 13th October following, when the garrison made a very honourable capitulation for themselves and the rest of the inhabitants; and in 1690 it was besieged by King William, when he was forced to raise the siege.

A TRAVELLING HINT.

Mr. Carr observes, that there are no stages or regular posting to Killarney. I was obliged, says he, to hire a chaise to go all the way for four guineas; the owner of it paying for the feeding of the post-boy and horses. The traveller will now, more than ever, be distressed for want of an uniform circulating medium. I therefore advise him to change his notes for those of Roches, bankers in this place, which will be taken at Cork and Killarney, and on the road. A lady at the inn where I was, assured me, that she had been detained a whole day in the country, because, having no money, and no other than local notes, the keeper of the turnpike refused to let her pass. Notes for eighteen-pence are abundant. Bankers are almost as common as potatoes in the counties of Limerick, Kerry, and Cork. At a village not far from Limerick, a blacksmith issues sixpenny notes, which circulate in the village, and no farther.

In the band of one of the militia regiments I saw a banker who had *failed for five pounds!* and, trifling as this sum is, no

doubt several suffered by the petty defaulter. In short, were not the inconveniences of such a system greatly oppressive, and the temptation to fraud shocking, these *musquito* bankers would furnish many a smile to the traveller as he wanders through the west and south-west of Ireland; but, as he values comfort and progressive motion, let him be careful how he receives in payment the notes which will be offered to him.

RUINS OF ADAIR.

About seven o'clock in the morning, under a tolerable specimen of the humidity of the atmosphere of this part of Ireland, I bade adieu to Limerick, so famous for its pretty women, its river, its gloves, and its depôts of beef and pork. I saw nothing worthy of notice till I approached Adair, the town where we first halted, which presented a very picturesque and beautiful appearance. This village, which is situated in the barony of Kennerly, and on the Maig, which communicates with the Shannon, abounds with ruins of churches and convents, which in distant times belonged to the Franciscan friars. Every spot is holy ground. The ruins which are in the highest preservation, are those of a religious house in the south side of the town, built in the reign of King Edward I., by John, earl of Kildare, for friars of the order of the Holy Trinity, for the redemption of christian captives: its steeple is supported by a plain arch, with four diagonal ogives meeting in the centre, and stairs which rise to the battlements. The nave and choir are small and plain. On the south side of the river there is another friary in high preservation, founded by John, earl of Kildare, who died 1315. In the choir, which is large, are stalls, and a corresponding nave, with a lateral aisle on the south side. To the north of the steeple are some beautiful cloisters, with Gothic windows, within which, on three sides of the square, are corridors; and on most of these windows are escutcheons with the English and saltier crosses, in general ranged alternately. The principal parts are of hewn lime-stone, which appears fresh, and the workmanship is simply elegant. Near the cloisters are several apartments, which appear to be much more ancient than the other parts of the building. In the east part of the town a great friary was founded by Thomas, earl of Kildare, and Joan his wife, daughter of James, earl of Desmond, in 1465.

All these ruins are delightfully situated, and time has finely coloured those parts which the ivy has not covered. The moralist, the painter, and the antiquarian, will not pass Adair without heaving a sigh for poor mortality, without borrowing some venerable grace from the hoary pile, or tracing, amid the mouldering ruins, the skill and taste of distant ages. My

driver was a very good-humoured fellow, who stammered most unintelligibly till I became a little accustomed to him; and although wet to the skin, and a glass of whisky lay before him, he would first conduct me to these monastic remains, which, if I might judge by the brightness of his eyes, and the vivacity of his gestures, and by putting the heads and tails and scattered limbs of his words together as well as I could, he seemed to enjoy in a manner very creditable to his feelings. I was surprised to find, not only here, but in every other part of Ireland which I visited, that the Anglo-Hibernian language spoken was free from provincial idiom: the only difference which I found arose from the pronunciation of a few words being more or less broad.

On the road I met horses laden with goods fastened by ropes of hay, horses drawing in hay harness, and pigs checked in their erratic disposition by having one of their front and hinder legs agreeably attached to each other by the same simple material; and the female peasants looked neat and clean, and poised their milk-pails with admirable dexterity.

FUNERAL-HOWL AND THE PALATINES.

As I passed the race-course, about a mile before I reached the town of Rathkeale, for the first time I heard the Irish funeral-howl issuing from a cottage, where, by an oblique peep, I saw several persons assembled, who, without any appearance of grief, produced the most dismal sounds. The ceremony upon those occasions I have before described. In this part of the country, and particularly in the neighbourhood of Rathkeale, the descendants of the Palatines, who came over to this country in 1709, reside. In the benignity of the British nation, these Germans found a refuge from the oppression of their own prince, and of the French, on account of their religious faith. They were recommended by Queen Anne to the protection of the Irish parliament, which, from a belief that their residence would strengthen the protestant religion, voted five thousand a year to her Majesty for three years, to defray the expence attending their settlement. Their descendants are a loyal, laborious, and respectable race of men. In the rebellion they formed themselves into volunteer corps, and, by essential services, requited the protection which the nation had afforded to them. The country which they inhabit has experienced great advantages from their skill and industry. Their cottages are built after the fashion of their own country, and are remarkably neat and clean. The women frequently wear the large straw hat and short petticoat of the Palatinate. They never marry out of their own community. They use a plough peculiar to themselves, and retain

many other of their original customs. The native peasantry have been much improved by their society and example. Several of these people reside on Sir William Barker's estate, in the county of Tipperary, and are much respected. In their emigration, settlement, and deportment, they resemble the Dutch colony established within two or three miles of Copenhagen, which supplies that city with milk, butter, and its best vegetables.

CASTLE ISLAND.

I found Castle Island a large town, in a state of rapid decay, owing, as I was informed, to a dispute amongst the proprietors regarding the division of their respective interests. The place was formerly called the Castle of the Island of Killybegs. The castle was erected in 1226; but the ruins want wood and verdure to make them interesting. Immense masses of this ~~and~~ broken off, as solid and compact as rock, lie in the field in which it stands. Only the shell of the market-house and assembly-rooms remains. The Charter-school established here, I was informed, was wholly neglected.

EFFECT OF A PAIR OF BREECHES.

Turning round the road as I left Castle Island, which I did with infinite pleasure, I met an Irish funeral: the corpse was in a plain deal coffin, and the population of two or three villages followed it, amongst whom about four or five men and women kept up a constant mournful cry, without any other indication of affliction: not one of them was in mourning, and I found my approach increased the chorus of the funeral yell. The country still continued very wild and dreary. In these mountainous regions, a stranger, moving in a *pair of breeches*, attracted the attention of the dogs, the constant inmates of the cabins, which, upon seeing so great a novelty approach, naturally regard it as a phenomenon portending no good, and accordingly set up the faithful howl of alarm. One of these vigilant guardians, after contemplating me for some time as I walked forward, gave the usual public notice of my arrival; upon which one of these mountaineers threw, *not a stone*, but a bit of turf, at him, and pulling off his hat, apologized for his dog wanting better manners. In one cabin I saw a pretty obstinate contest between a pig and his mistress; the latter wanted him to go out, and the former was resolved to stay in, and gained his point. The low Irish are very fond of giving fine names to these animals. A woman was overheard to say to a great sow, "Ah, Juliana! get out, what do you do here?"

IRISH PREJUDICE.

A few miles before we reached Killarney, the face of the country very rapidly changed to fertility and beauty. The blue and purple sides of those vast mountains which inclosed the lakes, appeared full in my view: they rose majestically from a sea of vapour, and their heads were lost in the clouds. As we descended into the vale which led to the town, my driver, who by this time was quite intelligible to me, and who I found had impregnated me with a little of his stuttering, the natural effect of sympathy and association, observed, "Ah, your honour! here are glens and mountains! if you had them in your country, ~~what a fine thing~~ it would be for the robbers and murderers there: by my shoul, they are here of no use!" I could not ~~help~~ smiling at his opinion of England: in vain did I tell him, that we had glens and mountains too, which were not infested with robbers and murderers. He shook his head to all I said. In many parts of Ireland I found the same unfortunate and unpleasant prejudice.

Instead of finding Killarney a little romantic place, as I had previously penciled it in my imagination, I entered a large town, resembling Newport in the Isle of Wight; its streets were crowded with people: it is the principal town in the county of Kerry.

MUCRUSS ABBEY.

On reaching Mucruss, near Killarney, Mr. Carr observes, the graceful ruins of Mucruss Abbey on our right, half embosomed in a group of luxuriant and stately trees, influenced, ~~as soon as~~ seen, the bridle of our horses. I contemplated with reverence a very ancient and prodigious yew, the trunk of which is between seven and eight feet in circumference, which grows in the centre of a cloistered court, and covers it with a roof of branches and leaves, whilst some ash trees of a prodigious size overshadow it without. This yew-tree is the object of superstitious veneration amongst the low people, who also exhibit their devotion to the saint of the place, by going round the building a certain number of times, during which they recite prayers. Pilgrims come from a considerable distance to do penance here. According to tradition, many Irish kings and chiefs are buried in the abbey, a favourite place of sepulture, where the dead are buried only on the south and east sides: the north is looked upon, I was told, as the Devil's side, and the west is preserved for unbaptised children, for soldiers, and strangers.

Whilst I was reading a pathetic epitaph upon one of the monuments in the abbey, I felt myself effected by putrid effluvia ; and upon looking on each side, I observed, for the first time, some bodies, which might have been interred two or three months, in coffins, the planks of which had started, not half covered with mould. Upon quitting the spot, a great collection of skulls and bones, promiscuously heaped up, in niches in the walls, excited melancholy observation.

The soil of the abbey is very thin, and every effort has been made to dissuade the lower classes from bringing their dead here, but in vain. It is a fact, that those who have been buried six months or a year before, are raised and ~~placed~~ on one side to make room for those who are brought for interment afterwards. So loaded with contagion is the air of this spot, that every principle of humanity imperiously calls upon the indulgent to exercise his right of closing it up as a place of sepulture in future. I warn every one who visits Killarney, as he values life, not to enter this abbey. Contrast renders doubly horrible the ghastly contemplation of human dissolution, tainting the surrounding air with pestilence, in a spot which nature has enriched with a profusion of romantic beauty. The superstition of the people in the neighbourhood of Adair, which I have mentioned, crowded one of the abbeys there with the dead, until the spot became the seat of infection ; upon which Lord Adair, owner of the place, with equal prudence and resolution, sent for some of the soldiers of a militia regiment quartered in the neighbourhood, and having taken every proper precaution against infection, prevailed upon them, by a liberal remuneration, in one night to remove every vestige of corruption from the favourite abbey into the river, and never afterwards permitted ~~any more~~ to be buried in his grounds. His lordship lost his popularity for a short period, and more serious consequences were apprehended by his friends, but a little time and reflection restored him to the good opinion of those whom his good sense and firmness had offended.

Some years since an Englishman of handsome appearance, and in the prime of life, from what cause I could not learn, selected this abbey for the place of his retirement, and covered an open cell in one of the upper apartments, with fragments of tombs and coffins, to protect himself against the inclemencies of the weather. He sometimes associated with the neighbours, and obtained such a reputation for sanctity, that the surrounding peasants used to supply him with food, till at last it was discovered that the holy man was given to solitary whisky indulgences, and that he was seen reeling amongst the graves, and apostrophizing

the bones that lay scattered in the aisles; in consequence of which the superstitious veneration of the good people of Killarney diminished, and in one night the hermit disappeared, having previously declared his intention of retiring to a cell upon the rock of Lisbon. I remember in Devonshire a letter-carrier who, in consequence of a disappointment of the heart in early life, never shaved, and always lived upon raw meat.

Mucruss lake lies expanded below the garden very beautifully. From the cottage we proceeded to the Turk cascade, which falls from the Devil's Punch-bowl, a supposed volcanic crater, upon the summit of Mangerton mountain. Of the beauty of this fall I could not judge, as it was supplied with but little water when I saw it. The visitor of Killarney will be applied to by the people who belong to the boats which are kept for visiting the lakes: the expence of hiring them, the charge of the boatmen, French horns, victualing them, powder for the petteraro, generally amounts to about nine guineas, by the time all the lakes are visited. I speak only from information, for the polite attention I received prevented me from stating it with the certainty of experience. All the boats belong to Lord Kenmare, as lord of the lakes. In consequence of the sudden squalls that frequently blow, no sails are permitted.

Upon the weather clearing up about two o'clock in the afternoon, we rode to Ross Castle to take water, where Colonel Heyland's boat and six men and a bugle were waiting for us. The road to the castle runs through a bog, and is rather dreary. The castle is picturesque, and forms a barrack for a company of soldiers: it stands on Ross Island, the largest in the lake, about a mile in length, almost covered with evergreens, and abounding with copper and lead mines. This castle was formerly a royal residence, or rather the seat of the lords of the Lakes, who assumed the title of Kings. The family of O'Donoghue was the last that bore this title. As we stopped to look at the castle, one of the people belonging to it presented me with a copper two shillings and sixpenny piece, which had been found with others of the same coin in Ireland, and which were coined, and forced into short-lived circulation, during the distresses of James the Second in Ireland.

The lower lake seemed to be spotted with an archipelago of islands. We proceeded to Linnisfallen, one of the largest and most beautiful of them. It is a lawn containing about seventeen acres of the richest verdure, fenced with rock; a path runs round the island, overarched with trees of the most luxuriant growth. The holly, beech, and yew abound here, and grow to prodigious size and beauty. I saw a holly with two sorts of leaves, one prickly and the other smooth; they were called male

and female leaves; and another was eleven feet and a half in circumference. From one point we saw before us the vast mountains of Glenaa and Toomish, towering into the clouds, which were contrasted by the softer scenes of the wooded shores of Ross-Island.

THE BED OF HONOUR.

At one extremity of Innisfallen, our guide took great pains to shew us a hollow rock, which is called the bed of honour, and is said to possess a charm against sterility in women. Amongst brambles and briars we found the remains of a small abbey, founded at the close of the sixth century. According to the annals of Munster, A. D. 1180, this abbey and grounds were esteemed a paradise and a secure sanctuary, in which the treasures of the whole country were occasionally deposited in its clergy. On the north-east point, near the landing-place, is a small building, supposed to have been a chapel, now used by visitors to dine in. The ledges of rocks which environ this wilderness of sweets, are romantic beyond imagination: they were richly carpeted to their very edges with verdure, which cover their angles and unevenness; and they support, without any apparent nourishment, the richest shrubs and trees. In some places these rocks present the most rugged and fantastic little bays, in others they had the graceful appearance of pedestals of polished marble.

O'SULLIVAN'S CASCADE.

Upon leaving this enchanting spot, we crossed over to O'Sullivan's cascade, a mountain stream roaring down a rocky channel on the side of Glenaa. We were conducted through a winding, unequal path, deeply overshadowed with trees, which lessened as we approached the fall, upon which the sun shone brilliantly; the leafless branch of a blasted oak stretched half across it; its rebounding foam, white as the driven snow, spread as it were a muslin veil over the light green of the shrubs which crowned the summit of the fall, and the gray and moss-covered rocks, over which the descending waters roared to the lake. Upon our return, I was informed that Glenaa was till lately entirely clothed with the finest woods.

Let me here caution those who visit the lakes against having turf or Kilkenny-coal fires in their bed-rooms; by the former I had nearly perished in the night by suffocation, and the latter has more than once proved fatal,

THE QUARTER-SESSIONS.

The next morning I attended the quarter-sessions, at which a barrister presided. At this meeting the character of the people was strikingly developed. The greatest good humour prevailed in the court, which was a large naked room, with a quantity of turf piled up in one corner of it. Every face looked animated; scarcely any decorum was kept, but justice was expeditiously, and I believe substantially, administered by the barrister, who is addressed by that name, and who appeared to be perfectly competent to the discharge of his judicial duties. He was elevated above the rest. A fellow, like every one of his sort, joined in or out of court, loving law to his soul, projected himself too forward to hear a cause which was proceeding; the officer of the court, who, like the bell of Peeping Tom of Coventry, made a horrible noise by endeavouring to keep silence, struck this anxious unlucky wight a blow on the head with a long pole, almost sufficiently forcible to have felled an ox; the fellow rubbed his head, all the assembly broke out in a loud laugh, in which the object of their mirth could not resist joining. Instead of counsel, solicitors pleaded: one of them was examining a rustic, a witness on behalf of his client, when I entered: the poor fellow suffered answers unfavourable to the party for whom he appeared to escape him; upon which, after half a dozen imprecations, the solicitor threw the Testament on which he had been sworn at his head: a second laugh followed. Another fellow swore backwards and forwards ten times in about as many minutes, and when ever he was detected in the most abominable perjury, the auditor was thrown into convulsions of merriment. The barrister held in his hands, not the scales of justice, but a little brass machine for weighing shillings, and which was in frequent requisition upon the judicial seat, for ascertaining the due weight of fees paid into court—another proof of the injurious effects of the wretched state of the circulating medium!

The low Irish are not only fond of law, but are capable of making shrewd remarks upon the administration of justice. Many years since, a gentleman of *consequence and interest* was tried at the assizes of Galway for murder, and, notwithstanding the clearest evidence of the fact, the jury acquitted him. Soon afterwards, as some gentlemen were standing at a large window at Lucas's coffee-house, much resorted to in those days, situated exactly where the exchange now is, a criminal was carried past to be executed: upon which they said—"What is that fellow going to be hanged for?" A low fellow who was passing

by, and overheard the question, looked up and said : " Plaze your honours ! for want of a *Galway jury*."

Upon our arrival at Dunloe Castle, we found our horses ready saddled, and we immediately proceeded to a frightful scene of desolation, called the Gap, about three miles distant. It is a hideous pass through two prodigious mountains of barren rock and masses of stone, which looked as if all the rubbish of the creation, after the great Creator had completed his work, had been collected together. From the summit of one of the sides, the Purple mountain, as it is called, capped with clouds, and the upper lake, are seen. Although there is scarcely soil sufficient to nourish a blade of grass, yet a little smoke which we saw, denoted that, upon the craggy cliffs, a few wretched cabins were scattered. The only animated being, except the individuals who composed our party, was a poor labourer, who, at a giddy depth, was quarrying slate.

In the woods near the castle, we passed by some of its towers and apartments, which the cannons of Cromwell, and the rending hand of time, had laid prostrate. The part that retains its perpendicularity still preserves the dignified name of a castle, although it has only one room on a floor, and many of the family are obliged to be accommodated in out-offices. I should think the castle, like many others which I saw in Ireland, must have been small : very few can have been places of defence. The pride of the ancient Irish gentry induced them to dignify their residences with the name of castles ; that of a house, which is now so much the fashion in England, that every citizen's snug little box, with *forty yards square* of shrubbery, flowers, and kitchen-garden, bears the pompous name, was called in Irish, by way of contempt, *clahane*, or a heap of stones.

When I learned that there were five-and-twenty licensed whisky-shops in Killarney, I was not surprised to hear that one of the candlesticks had been stolen from the altar of the Roman catholic chapel there.

There is a noble school for catholic children at Killarney. When they are old enough to quit the seminary, they are ardently sought after as servants, as well by protestant as catholic families, on account of the irreproachable conduct of those who have been educated there : this is one amongst many powerful instances which may be adduced, to prove that the great object of the Irish government ought to be the illumination of the minds of the lower orders, without aiming at *proselytism*. Religion, let it embrace whatever faith it may, and education, must inevitably create a love of social order ; superstition and ignorance must ever engender a spirit which is hostile to it. How many years

are to roll away in storm and bloodshed, before this plain, but important, truth shall be admitted or acted upon?

Mr. Carr concludes his account of the lakes with some additional anecdotes of Irish pleasantry.

IRISH MAGNANIMITY.

Before we quit Killarney, I cannot resist laying before my reader an instance of generosity and humanity with which he will be charmed, and which was displayed by the colonel of the very regiment I have mentioned.

In the season of 1787, as the present Lord Castlereagh, then Mr. Steward, was enjoying the pleasure of an aquatic excursion with his schoolfellow and friend, Mr. Sturrock, near Castle-Steward, the seat of his lordship's father, the Earl of Londonderry, accompanied by any other person, a violent squall of wind upset the boat, at the distance of two miles at least from shore. Lord Castlereagh, who was an excellent swimmer, recollecting that Mr. Sturrock could not swim, immediately on the boat sinking, directed his attention to his friend, swam to him, placed a piece of a broken oar under his breast, recommended him, with the most encouraging composure and presence of mind, to remain as long as he could on this piece of timber, and when fatigued to turn himself on his back, which he shewed him how to effect by placing himself in that position. He continued swimming near his friend, occasionally raising his hands, in the hope that some one might discover their perilous situation. Mr. Sturrock, father to the young friend of Lord Castlereagh, and Mr. Cleland, his lordship's tutor, had been looking at the boat previous to the squall, which they had taken shelter under in a temple in the gardens of Mount Steward. Upon the storm subsiding these gentlemen quitted the place, immediately missed the boat, and concluded that she was lost. Most providentially they found in the harbour a small boat, into which they sprung, with feelings which it would be in vain to describe, and after rowing with all their vigour for a mile and a half, they at last discovered, as the waves rose and fell, a hat, and not far from it a hand waving; they redoubled their exertion, and came up to Lord Castlereagh, who implored them not to mind him, but instantly to go to his companion. "Never mind me," said his lordship, "for God's sake go to Sturrock, or he will be lost; leave me, I think I can support myself till you return." They accordingly left him, and arrived at the critical moment when his young friend had just risen, after sinking the first time, and seizing him by his hair, they drew him quite senseless and exhausted into the boat—another minute, and all would have been over. They then returned to his lordship, and rescued him also.

I leave the reader to imagine the alternate agony and joy which must have characterized the whole of this awful and impressive scene.

POPULATION OF IRELAND.

That the population of Ireland has increased no one can doubt. Mr. Whitelaw informs me that, from such observations as he has been able to make, from a few trials on a small scale, and from the observations of intelligent friends, he is induced to believe that it does not fall short of five millions, but does not exceed it, as some writers have asserted; whilst others have confined it to three millions only. I place great confidence in Mr. Whitelaw's statement.

The relative proportion of square miles, and of population, between England and Ireland, is as follows :

England contains	49,450 square miles.
Ireland	27,457 ditto.
England contains	9,343,578 persons;
or	189 ditto to one square mile.
Ireland contains	5,000,000 persons;
or	182 1-10th to one square mile.

I have already mentioned the difficulty of ascertaining the population of Ireland with accuracy. Sir William Petty, who wrote in the reign of Charles II., estimated the population of Ireland at one million only. His situation as physician to the army in that country, and his long residence there, must have afforded him tolerable opportunities of judging. The number who perished in the rebellions of 1798 and 1803 is supposed not to have exceeded twenty thousand men; but it must ever remain a matter of conjecture. The population of Ireland, and consequently its agricultural improvements, must have received severe checks at various eras. The war of 1641, which lasted eleven years, and the plague and famine which accompanied it, destroyed six hundred and eighty-nine thousand persons; and, in 1652, Dublin was obliged to import provisions from Wales; and, about forty years since, corn to the amount of 380,000*l*.

To no country under heaven has nature been more bountiful than to Ireland, and in few countries have her bounties been less tasted by those for whom they were destined. Her history presents the gloomy picture of man opposing the happiness of man.

CAUSES OF POPULATION.

The causes which promote population, says our author, have been ably ascertained to consist in a mild and equitable government, abundance of food, frequency of marriage, a salubrious

climate, favourable to health, generation, and long life, to which I think the absence of English poor-laws may be added. Under these propitious circumstances, population will double in less than twenty years. What would the population of Ireland have been, if her political happiness had been commensurate with her physical advantages? What may not such a country become in the space of twenty years, under the fostering care of a wise and beneficent government?

The retarding causes which affect the population of Russia, prevent it from doubling itself in less than forty-nine years. The amazing population of China has been attributed to the expences attending the marriage state being so inconsiderable. A little rice, some raw cotton, or other materials, for clothing, and a couple of mats, form almost all the furniture of an ordinary Chinese house. The lower orders of Chinese are, I believe, more wretched than the lower Irish. We are credibly informed, that thousands of families live perpetually in little fishing-boats upon canals and rivers, and that they frequently subsist by fishing up the nastiest garbage thrown overboard from an European ship. In Ireland there are scarcely greater checks to marriage amongst the lower orders, than there are in the sexual intercourse of animals. If the condition of the Irish peasantry were improved, I do not see that population could suffer.

When our militia regiments were in Ireland during the rebellion, the numbers of the married men amongst the Irish regiments were astonishingly greater than those of the same description in the English regiments, to the no small and frequently jocose surprise of the Irish soldier. Sir William Petty well observes, that "fewness of people is real poverty; and a nation wherein are eight millions of people, is more than twice as rich as the same scope of land wherein are but four." Montesquieu quaintly calls population "*une immense manufacture*." I can confidently assert, that is is a manufacture well calculated to flourish in Ireland.

VIEW OF CORK.

As we approached Cork the view became very fine, the river Lee winding to the Cove, a country on each side well cultivated, and dotted with villas: the city, its superb barracks, the Mar-dyke walk, extending a mile under the shade of elms, the new goal, which has a noble appearance, and the shipping, presented an uncommonly rich, varied, and picturesque prospect. Cork is the second city in Ireland, and if ships of above two hundred tons were not obliged to unload at Passage, five miles and a half from Cork, it would be one of the finest port towns in the world. In times of peace the flags of every nation may be seen

waving in her harbour, called the Cove, now protected by a fort, built on the great island below, commanding the haven, which is perfectly safe, and capable of affording complete protection to the whole navy of England from every wind that blows. Ships from England, bound to all parts of the West Indies, put in here; and in one year, in pacific times, no less than two thousand vessels have floated upon its bosom.

In the city are three convents; two of the order of the Presentation, devoted entirely to the instruction of poor female children, and one called the Ursuline, for the education of females in the higher ranks of life, but in which poor children are also sometimes instructed.

The barracks are upon an immense scale, and very superb: they stand upon a rocky mountain, and command the city, and all the beautiful scenery of the surrounding country. The city stands upon several islands formed by the river Lee, which are handsomely banked and quayed in. Several streets have been gained from the river, and are built like the Adelphi, upon arches: the shops are well supplied, and many of them are elegant. The Mardyke walk is very beautiful: from this spot I made a sketch of the city. It has many very handsome houses, and the society is refined and elegant.

In the centre of the parade, which is very spacious, there is an equestrian statue of George the Second; it is of stone, and painted yellow, and has nothing belonging to it worthy of further notice.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS AT CORK.

The Lying-in Hospital here at first did not answer, on account of excited prejudice; it is now, however, in some degree of estimation among the lower orders. Attached to the South Infirmary, a lock ward and a penitentiary house are now built, and will soon be fit for the reception of reformed prostitutes. There is also a charitable repository. The Mayor and Sheriffs' Charity is an institution that affords the sum of two hundred pounds per annum, in small sums, to aged or distressed freemen, towards their support. The Foundling Hospital is well supported by a tax on coals. There are also several Alms-houses. The Blue and Green-Coat Hospitals are established for the instruction of children recommended by aldermen. There are also, in every parish, schools for the instruction of poor children. The Schools of Industry are very justly entitled to the support they meet with, where poor children are rescued from the fatal habits of idleness, beggary, and thieving, and are taught to read and write, and are made acquainted with such

works as may habituate them to industry, and enable them to provide for themselves, with advantage to society.

The country and city House of Industry at Cork is well worthy the notice of a traveller; although the mixture of the objects of punishment and charity, within its pale, is objectionable, yet upon the whole it does honour to the humanity of the city. Against this mixture, which obtains almost in every large town and city in Ireland, except Dublin, too solemn a protest cannot be entered. The first objects which presented themselves were the vilest prostitutes of the city and incorrigible young offenders; the former amounted to eighty-two, each of whom had a chain and log fastened upon one leg; they were without shoes or stockings, but that is no grievance, for in all human probability they never wore either, or only during the more fortunate vicissitudes of life; but they were wretchedly clad, being allowed no prison dress, which, in my humble opinion, upon the principles of humanity and even of justice, ought to be supplied: excepting a few of the other classes mentioned, the rest in this division of the building were decayed housekeepers, male and female, amounting in all to two hundred and thirty two persons. I found the charity and prison allowance liberal, consisting of meat, stirabout, milk, and potatoes, varied on different days. In another part of the building I saw the idiots and iusane, amounting to one hundred and eight; the former were very few; the latter appeared to have every kind and soothing attention paid to them; formerly they used to run about the streets unattended. The wards, though too confined, were remarkably clean, and there was not, as in England, that highly improper intercourse of convalescents with subjects of violent frenzy. This institution is supported by presentments, and charitable donations.

The Old Gaol is a shocking place, having no yard, and the prisoners looked very unhealthy; they were not ironed. I was surprised to find that they were not removed to the New Prison, which, although not finished, had many apartments fit to receive them. This gaol is one of the finest I ever saw; only its guard, and bars and bolts, could have prevented me from mistaking it for a new and noble mansion. It stands a little way out of the city in a most healthy and beautiful situation. The passages and cells were spacious, secure, and healthy; the arrangement of the building appeared to embrace every object which humanity could desire: it is capable of holding from five to six hundred prisoners.

The inhabitants of this, like those of every other city, are disposed to exaggerate its population, which they estimate at nearly one hundred and twenty thousand; but most of the

Roman Catholic clergymen, and the resident physicians who have the best means of information, average it at about one hundred thousand: the mode usually adopted of grounding the calculation upon the number of houses, is very fallacious, not only with respect to this, but every other city in the southern and western provinces, and generally throughout Ireland, where the poorer classes are compressed into a space which is shocking to humanity: in several lanes in Cork, the walls of a small wretched habitation, frequently enclose upwards of fifty persons. Limerick, and I am told Galway, exhibit similar instances of crowded population; and hence have arisen the gross errors of those who have formed their estimate of population upon the returns of the hearth-money and tax-gatherers.

The population of Cork has increased five-fold since the reign of Charles the Second, and has received, notwithstanding the counteractive effects of war, and the decline of manufactures in the south, an augmentation of at least ten thousand inhabitants within the space of ten years.

Cork exports more beef, tallow, hides, butter, fish, and other provisions, than Belfast, Waterford, or Limerick; her other exports are linen cloth, pork, calves, lambs, rabbit-skins, wool for England, linen, and woollen yarn and woisted. The slaughtering season commences in September, and continues to the latter end of January, during which time it has been computed that no less than one hundred thousand head of black cattle have been killed and cured.

The provision-trade has not been carried on for these last three or four years with the same spirit, and to the same extent, as formerly, owing in a great measure to the business having become more general in the other sea-ports of Ireland than before: yet a much larger quantity of provision was made up in Cork last season than the year preceding; but if it be considered that the greater portion was intended for the use of government, and that the price of cattle has been much too high in proportion to the prices allowed by government for the manufactured provisions, it may easily be inferred that the trade could not be very productive to those concerned.

The price of land in the neighbourhood of this city varies from three pound to ten pound per acre of English statute measure.

Upon the banks of the river, and towards the harbour's mouth, on account of the convenience for bathing, the land, without being rich, is very high in value. Within these last ten years rent has tripled: the price of labour in this part of Ireland has advanced greatly within these few years; but the comforts of the lower orders have not "grown with its growth," in consequence of the prices of the necessaries of life keeping

equal pace with the advances of wages, which in these parts are now from sixteen-pence to eighteen-pence per day.

Tillage in the immediate neighbourhood of Cork, and in the south parts of the country, has been latterly much promoted, in consequence of the breweries and distilleries consuming such an immense quantity of barley and oats; whilst the large quantity of wheat and flour used in the market, both for home consumption and export, has greatly excited the farmers to the cultivation of the former. The rigorous exaction of the hearth-money tax has been much complained of amongst the poor, but as the legislature is about to annul it, all farther comment would be unnecessary.

The relative proportion of catholics to protestants in this and in all the cities of Munster, is full four to one; in the interior of the country it is ten to one; almost all the common people are of the first description, as well as the respectable merchants of the city.

Under the term protestants are comprehended all separatists from the catholic communion: the established church in this part of Ireland has very few followers; the Methodists, on the contrary, are rapidly increasing.

Although catholic landholders in this county are not very numerous at present, as the character of the city is purely commercial, no doubt the catholic landed interests will be much extended, by catholics investing their fortune in future in the purchase of land.

The bridewell is an old building: I found it clean, and occupied only by two refractory apprentices. The market for fish, meat, and vegetables, is admirably constructed and profusely supplied. The Irish excel us in the architectural arrangements of these buildings. Provisions were as under: the best beef and mutton at fourpence per lb. a couple of ducks one shilling, a turkey half-a-crown, and a hare sixpence. In the shambles I met the mayor, distinguished by a cocked hat and golden chain, actively engaged in preventing frauds, and preserving order. For the support of this office, five hundred pounds per annum is appropriated out of the city revenues, amounting annually to three thousand pounds. The civil government of the city is vested in this magistrate, a recorder, and sheriffs. Cork is also the see of a bishop, who has a palace here. There is a small neat theatre, but there were no performers when I was in the city. At the great cattle-fairs; no woman with a red cloak is permitted to appear; a regulation which arose from the following very extraordinary circumstance, which a gentleman of great respectability assured me was true. At a great cattle fair in this county a herd of oxen was so frightened by the red cloak of an old woman, that they ran off

with the greatest fury, and descended a slope of ground with such velocity, as to break down part of the park wall of a nobleman.

KILKENNY THEATRICALS.

“At Kilkenny I found quite a jubilee-bustle in the streets, and elegant equipages driving about in all directions. The annual theatricals of this delightful little town had attracted a great number of fashionables from Dublin and the surrounding country. These dramatic amusements, varied by races, balls, and concerts, are supported by gentlemen of rank and fortune, for the purpose of converting the result of a highly intellectual and social gratification into a permanent source of relief for those who are sinking under want and misery: to the eternal honour of Ireland be it spoken, that this sentiment is a prevailing one. The character of an Irish gentleman may be described in these words, gaiety and generosity. The theatricals of Kilkenny last about a month, and at the end generally leave a balance, after deducting the expences of the house, dresses not included, of two hundred pounds, which is applied to charitable purposes: one hundred and forty pounds have been received in one night. The theatre, which is the private property of the gentlemen who perform, is small and elegant, and the whole, except the back of a gallery, is laid out into boxes, the admission to which is six shillings. Over the proscenium of the stage is written the following elegant and expressive motto, from the pen of General Taylor: “Whilst we smile, we soothe affliction.” I saw *Henry the Fifth* performed: the principal characters were admirably supported, and the dresses were uncommonly superb. Lord Mountjoy appeared one night in a dress valued at eight thousand pounds. The female performers were engaged from the Dublin stage. The house was crowded, and enabled me to speak with confidence of the beauty and elegance of the higher orders of Irish ladies. The principal characters at these theatricals are supported by Mr. R. Power, Mr. Lyster, Mr. R. Langrise, Lord Mountjoy &c.”

From the copious analysis which we have given of this work, our readers will be enabled to appreciate the great merit of the original. It is certainly the most able and interesting vindication of the Irish character, which has issued from the press in these times of national partiality; and we are happy to learn, that the author has lately received the honorary reward of knighthood, as a recompense for his liberal opinions; while his book has experienced a very extensive circulation, throughout the united kingdom.

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23, ———	8, for one fourth	read one eighth.
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74, ———	18, for Syracuse	read Syracuse.
88, ———	24, for quoque	read quaque.

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